

## Exploratory Correlation of The Human Structural Connectome with Non-MRI Variables

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[http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/how\\_to\\_apply/ADNI\\_Acknowledgement\\_List.pdf](http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/how_to_apply/ADNI_Acknowledgement_List.pdf)

## ABSTRACT

**INTRODUCTION:** Discovery of the associations between brain structural connectivity and clinical and demographic variables can help to better understand the vulnerability and resilience of the brain architecture to neurodegenerative diseases and to discover biomarkers.

**METHODS:** We used four diffusion-MRI databases, three related to Alzheimer’s disease, to exploratorily correlate structural connections between 85 brain regions with non-MRI variables, while stringently correcting the significance values for multiple testing and ruling out spurious correlations via careful visual inspection. We repeated the analysis with brain connectivity augmented with multi-synaptic neural pathways.

**RESULTS:** We found 34 and 37 significant relationships with direct and augmented connectivity, respectively, which were generally stronger for augmented connectivity. Age was consistently linked to decreased connectivity, and healthier clinical scores were generally linked to increased connectivity.

**DISCUSSION:** Our findings help to elucidate which structural brain networks are affected in Alzheimer’s disease and aging and highlight the importance of including indirect connections.

**Keywords:** Structural brain connectivity, human connectome, multi-synaptic neural pathways, diffusion MRI, Alzheimer’s disease, dementia, aging.

## 1. Introduction

Normal aging, as well as debilitating neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer’s disease (AD), affect not only individual brain regions, but also connectivity between them [1, 2]. Focus on brain regions, but not interregional connectivity, may have hindered progress in understanding and treating diseases such as AD that are characterized as disconnection syndromes [3]. Mapping the complex brain networks through which information flows – i.e., the human *connectome* [4] – can help to better understand the vulnerability and resilience of these networks to the effects of AD, potentially leading to the discovery of diagnostically and therapeutically important connectomic biomarkers. Analysis of structural brain networks, by means of noninvasive diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (dMRI), has proved valuable in revealing the structural basis of dysfunction in mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and AD, demonstrating changes distinct from those with healthy aging [5-9].

Brain connectivity is often represented as a graph adjacency matrix of connection strengths between the brain regions of interest (ROIs), with its number of elements (graph edges) growing quadratically with respect to the number of ROIs (graph nodes). In population connectomic studies, it is often desired to find links between brain connectivity and non-MRI (clinical and/or demographic) variables. Such a study typically has sufficient statistical power to test pre-hypothesized relationships involving specific brain connections and variables. In contrast, an exploratory investigation to *discover* previously unknown relationships would require correlating the connectivity strength of every brain ROI pair with every available variable, amounting to hundreds of thousands (sometimes millions) of tests. In that scenario, the correction for multiple comparisons would make the study statistically less powerful and consequently less desirable to conduct. Alternatively, one could reduce the number of tests considerably by focusing on network summary features [10] rather than brain connections, which would inform about how the variables relate to the network as a whole [7, 11] but not to individual brain connections.

Structural connectivity between two brain regions is commonly defined based on the dMRI tractography-derived [12, 13] streamlines between them. The direct fiber bundle connecting two brain areas is expected to be the major signal carrier between them; however, *multi-synaptic* neural pathways (those mediated through other regions) also provide connectivity [14, 15]. We have previously developed computational methods to augment direct structural connectivity graphs with indirect connections [16] as well as quantify brain structural connectivity while accounting for indirect pathways [17], and have shown the importance of these pathways in predicting functional connectivity [17] and deriving connectomic biomarkers for MCI and AD [18].

In this short report, we take an exploratory approach to discovering relationships that individual structural connections in the brain may have with clinical and demographic variables. We use anatomical and diffusion MR images along with non-MRI data from four public databases (three of which are related to AD) to find links between brain connections – both direct and augmented

– and non-MRI variables that remain significant after stringent correction for multiple testing and visual inspection.

We describe our processing and analysis methods in Section 2, report our results in Section 3, discuss them in Section 4, and conclude the paper in Section 5.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Datasets

We used the following four public dMRI databases. The number of subjects indicates the subset of subjects that were processed and included in our analysis, and the number of non-MRI variables indicates variables that were available for at least some of the included subjects.

- The second phase of the *Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI-2)* [19]: 217 subjects (from cognitively normal to AD), 47 non-MRI variables from the ADNIMERGE table (demographics, CSF markers, dementia/cognitive exam scores, PET, ApoE4, diagnosis, ...).
- The third release in the *Open Access Series of Imaging Studies (OASIS-3)* [20]: 771 subjects (from cognitively normal to AD), 23 non-MRI variables (demographics, dementia/cognitive exam scores, ApoE, ...).
- The *Pre-symptomatic Evaluation of Experimental or Novel Treatments for Alzheimer's Disease (PREVENT-AD)* [21]: 340 cognitively unimpaired older individuals with a parental or multiple-sibling history of AD, 199 non-MRI variables (demographics, medical history, vitals, CSF markers, dementia/cognitive exam sub-scores, genetics, lab results, auditory/olfactory processing, ...).
- The WashU-UMN *Human Connectome Project (HCP)* [22]: 617 healthy young adults, 488 non-MRI variables (demographics, medical history, family history, dementia/cognitive exam scores, personality/emotion tests, motor/sensory tests, task performance, ...).

### 2.2. Data processing

Anatomical MR images of the databases were processed with FreeSurfer [23]. All time points of PREVENT-AD were also more robustly processed using the FreeSurfer longitudinal pipeline [24]. Nevertheless, for all databases, we included each subject only once, i.e. the earliest visit containing dMRI (frequently the baseline), in order to keep our analyzed data points independent and our study cross-sectional. We then ran the FreeSurfer dMRI processing pipeline, which also includes

commands from the FMRIB Software Library (FSL) [25], and propagated the 85 automatically segmented cortical and subcortical regions from the structural to the diffusion space using boundary-based image registration [26].

Next, we used our public toolbox ([www.nitrc.org/projects/csaodf-hough](http://www.nitrc.org/projects/csaodf-hough)) to: 1) reconstruct the diffusion orientation distribution function in constant solid angle [27], 2) run Hough-transform global probabilistic tractography [13] to generate 10,000 fibers per subject, 3) compute a symmetric structural connectivity matrix (with positive elements) for each subject by summing the tracts passing through each pair of ROIs weighted by the tract score, and 4) augment the raw matrices with indirect connections (see Section 2.3) [16]. We transformed the connectivity value  $c$  (each element in the raw or augmented connectivity matrix) as  $c \leftarrow 1 - \exp(-c/\bar{c})$ , where  $\bar{c}$  is the cross-subject average of  $c$ , thereby confining the connectivity values to the range [0,1).

### 2.3. Augmentation of structural connectivity with indirect connections

Strong functional connectivity between brain regions are commonly observed between regions with no *direct* structural connection [14, 28-34]. Some variance in functional connectivity unexplained by direct connections can be accounted for by *indirect* structural connections [14, 15, 17], implying that the network nature of the brain makes the interaction between two brain areas sensitive to influences from other remote areas [29].

We have previously developed a method to augment a tractography-generated structural connectivity matrix with indirect connections via the mathematics of circuits laws [16], thereby producing a new matrix that additionally reflects multi-synaptic pathways. This approach is based on the intuition that total connectivity for multiple direct connections is expectedly their sum if they are parallel, or smaller than each connection if they are in series (as total connectivity is presumably bottlenecked by the weakest link along the way). These conditions are accommodated by modeling the brain similarly to a resistive electrical circuit, where a resistor represents each direct connection, with its conductance (inverse of resistance) being the tractography-measured strength of the connection [16, 35]. Total (augmented) connectivity is then calculated via Kirchhoff's laws as the overall conductance among regions, using graph Laplacian methods.

### 2.4. Analysis

We used the cross-sectional data of each database to independently test if there is a statistically significant relationship between each non-MRI (clinical or demographic) variable and the computed structural brain connection between each ROI pair. To deal with data source heterogeneity, we analyzed the databases and report their results separately. The homogeneity

within each database is expected to lead to findings that would be strengthened if they independently replicated in several databases.

If a non-MRI variable had categorical (rather than numeric) values, we converted it to numeric by assigning a natural number to each category, while making our best effort to sort the categories (if more than two) in a monotonic order; for instance, for Baseline Diagnosis in ADNI-2, we assigned: Control Normal  $\rightarrow$  1, Significant Memory Concern  $\rightarrow$  2, Early MCI  $\rightarrow$  3, Late MCI  $\rightarrow$  4, and AD  $\rightarrow$  5. We then computed the Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), along with its significance ( $p$ ) value, between each variable and each connection. The  $p$ -values were corrected for multiple comparisons via the conservative Bonferroni method ( $p_b$ ); i.e., they were multiplied by the number of (undirected) connections,  $\#ROIs \times (\#ROIs - 1) \div 2 = 85 \times 84 \div 2 = 3570$ , as well as by the number of studied variables (see Section 2.1). Since the quantified structural connectivity, which is the score-weighted number of streamlines passing through a pair of ROIs, is affected by the tract length, we controlled for the extraneous variable of intracranial volume (ICV) by computing the *partial* correlation instead. For robustness of the correlation [36], we removed connectivity values that were marginal outliers from the correlation analysis by excluding any element in the connectivity matrix of a subject (but not the subject's entire matrix) that was larger than 0.9 (recall the range [0,1) of values). Therefore, slightly different numbers of subjects contributed to the correlation analysis of different brain connections.

For each variable, we selected the connection most significantly correlating with it, i.e. with the lowest  $p_b$ -value. If  $p_b$  was smaller than the threshold  $\alpha=0.05$ , then we scatter-plotted the connection strength with respect to the variable and visually inspected it to ensure the significant Pearson correlation was real and not spurious due to some outliers, thus avoiding situations with most data points clustered together with no obvious relationship [36]. The correlations surviving the Bonferroni correction and passing the visual inspection are reported as follows.

### 3. Results

We correlated 3570 brain structural connections with 47, 23, 199, and 488 non-MRI variables for each of the ADNI-2, OASIS-3, PREVENT-AD, and HCP databases, respectively, while controlling for the ICV. Out of those variables, 15, 19, 32, and 82, respectively, were found to have significant Pearson correlation ( $p_b < 0.05$ ) with raw connections, and 20, 16, 1, and 0 variables, respectively, had significant correlation with augmented connections. After visual inspection to remove spurious correlations, variables with significant correlation with raw connectivity were reduced to 15, 14, 3, and 2, respectively, whereas the variables significantly correlated with augmented connectivity remained unchanged. The findings are detailed in the four Tables for the four databases.

Controlling for ICV had several effects on the results, e.g., it made the correlation of brain connectivity with *ECog SP – Memory* in ADNI-2 significant (see Table 1). Without separating the

effects of ICV, conversely, we would observe significant negative correlations of brain connectivity with *weight* in OASIS-3 and with *grip strength* and the *maximum number of drinks consumed in a single day* in HCP. The confounding effect of ICV was especially drastic on the correlation with sex. Significant correlation of connectivity (of the most related brain connection) with the *male sex* was:

- initially not found in ADNI-2 but appeared as positive by including ICV as a covariate,
- negative in OASIS-3 regardless of controlling for ICV (but stronger without),
- initially positive in PREVENT-AD but disappeared after including ICV as a covariate,
- initially negative in HCP but disappeared after including ICV as a covariate.

**Table 1:** Significant correlations of non-MRI variables with brain connectivity in ADNI-2.

Non-MRI variable	Most correlated brain structural connection
Baseline Diagnosis	L. Lingual cortex – L. Entorhinal cortex <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.41, p_b = 0.0005</math></i>
Age	L. Ventral diencephalon – L. Hippocampus <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.42, p_b = 0.0002</math></i>
	R. Superior frontal cortex – L. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.47, p_b = 7 \times 10^{-7}</math></i>
Sex	R. Putamen – Brainstem <i>Raw, <math>r = 0.36</math> (with the male sex), <math>p_b = 0.04</math></i>
FDG-PET <i>Mean of angular, temporal, and posterior cingulate</i>	R. Fusiform cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, <math>r = 0.43, p_b = 0.0001</math></i>
	R. Precuneus cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = 0.46, p_b = 4 \times 10^{-6}</math></i>
AV45 PET (binding to $\beta$ -amyloid) <i>Mean of whole cerebellum</i>	R. Precuneus cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.43, p_b = 8 \times 10^{-5}</math></i>
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Sum of boxes</i>	R. Fusiform cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.38, p_b = 0.007</math></i>
	R. Entorhinal cortex – L. Pallidum <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.43, p_b = 6 \times 10^{-5}</math></i>
AD Assessment Scale (ADAS) <i>11 items</i>	R. Fusiform cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.37, p_b = 0.03</math></i>
	R. Precuneus cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.43, p_b = 0.0001</math></i>
AD Assessment Scale (ADAS) <i>13 items</i>	R. Hippocampus – R. Fusiform cortex <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.39, p_b = 0.005</math></i>
	R. Precuneus cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.44, p_b = 4 \times 10^{-5}</math></i>

AD Assessment Scale (ADAS) <i>Delayed Word Recall</i>	R. Ventral diencephalon – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = -0.38, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.01</i>
	R. Caudal anterior cingulate cortex – L. Entorhinal cortex <i>Augmented, r = -0.40, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.0008</i>
Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)	R. Entorhinal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = 0.37, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.02</i>
	R. Entorhinal cortex – L. Amygdala <i>Augmented, r = 0.42, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.0003</i>
Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT) Immediate <i>Sum of 5 trials</i>	R. Entorhinal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = 0.39, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.006</i>
	R. Isthmus cingulate cortex – L. Entorhinal cortex <i>Augmented, r = 0.41, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.0005</i>
Functional Assessment Questionnaire (FAQ)	R. Fusiform cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = -0.38, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.01</i>
	R. Rostral middle frontal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, r = -0.46, p<sub>b</sub> = 10<sup>-6</sup></i>
Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA)	L. Middle temporal cortex – L. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = 0.39, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.01</i>
	R. Isthmus cingulate cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, r = 0.44, p<sub>b</sub> = 6 × 10<sup>-5</sup></i>
ADNI modified Preclinical Alzheimer's Cognitive Composite (PACC) <i>with Digit Symbol Substitution</i>	R. Entorhinal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = 0.40, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.001</i>
	R. Hippocampus – L. Rostral middle frontal cortex <i>Augmented, r = 0.44, p<sub>b</sub> = 2 × 10<sup>-5</sup></i>
ADNI modified Preclinical Alzheimer's Cognitive Composite (PACC) <i>with Trails B</i>	R. Parahippocampal cortex – R. Fusiform cortex <i>Raw, r = 0.41, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.0005</i>
	R. Hippocampus – L. Rostral middle frontal cortex <i>Augmented, r = 0.44, p<sub>b</sub> = 10<sup>-5</sup></i>
Everyday Cognition Study Partner Report (ECog SP) – <i>Memory</i>	L. Entorhinal cortex – L. Banks of superior temporal sulcus <i>Augmented, r = -0.37, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.02</i>
Everyday Cognition Study Partner Report (ECog SP) – <i>Language</i>	L. Middle temporal cortex – L. Isthmus cingulate cortex <i>Augmented, r = -0.38, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.01</i>
Everyday Cognition Study Partner Report (ECog SP) – <i>Plan</i>	R. Isthmus cingulate cortex – L. Inferior temporal cortex <i>Augmented, r = -0.39, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.009</i>
Everyday Cognition Study Partner Report (ECog SP) – <i>Total</i>	L. Entorhinal cortex – L. Hippocampus <i>Raw, r = -0.37, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.04</i>
	R. Isthmus cingulate cortex – L. Inferior temporal cortex <i>Augmented, r = -0.39, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.006</i>
Logical Memory <i>Delayed Recall</i>	R. Hippocampus – L. Rostral middle frontal cortex <i>Augmented, r = 0.37, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.01</i>
Trail Making Test, Part B <i>Time to complete</i>	R. Parahippocampal cortex – R. Fusiform cortex <i>Raw, r = -0.40, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.001</i>
	R. Isthmus cingulate cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, r = -0.37, p<sub>b</sub> = 0.04</i>



**Table 2:** Significant correlations of non-MRI variables with brain connectivity in OASIS-3.

Non-MRI variable	Most correlated brain structural connection
Age	L. Hippocampus – L. Thalamus <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.48$ , $p_b = 6 \times 10^{-36}$
	R. Lingual cortex – L. Hippocampus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.50$ , $p_b = 2 \times 10^{-42}$
Age at entry	R. Hippocampus – R. Thalamus <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.47$ , $p_b = 7 \times 10^{-33}$
	R. Hippocampus – L. Superior frontal cortex <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.49$ , $p_b = 2 \times 10^{-40}$
Sex	L. Thalamus – R. Thalamus <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.21$ (with the male sex), $p_b = 0.001$
Uniform Data Set (UDS)	L. Superior parietal cortex – L. Precuneus cortex <i>Raw</i> , $r = 0.37$ , $p_b = 2 \times 10^{-19}$
	R. Inferior parietal cortex – L. Inferior parietal cortex <i>Augmented</i> , $r = 0.34$ , $p_b = 10^{-14}$
Neuropsychological Assessment	L. Superior parietal cortex – L. Precuneus cortex <i>Raw</i> , $r = 0.38$ , $p_b = 4 \times 10^{-14}$
	L. Pericalcarine cortex – L. Parahippocampal cortex <i>Augmented</i> , $r = 0.41$ , $p_b = 6 \times 10^{-18}$
Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)	R. Hippocampus – R. Putamen <i>Raw</i> , $r = 0.29$ , $p_b = 2 \times 10^{-10}$
	R. Superior frontal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = 0.35$ , $p_b = 5 \times 10^{-17}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR)	R. Hippocampus – R. Putamen <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.29$ , $p_b = 10^{-10}$
	R. Hippocampus – L. Thalamus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.37$ , $p_b = 7 \times 10^{-20}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Community affairs</i>	R. Hippocampus – L. Thalamus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.33$ , $p_b = 4 \times 10^{-15}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Home and hobbies</i>	R. Superior frontal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.34$ , $p_b = 4 \times 10^{-16}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Judgment and problem-solving</i>	R. Hippocampus – L. Hippocampus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.36$ , $p_b = 2 \times 10^{-18}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Memory</i>	R. Amygdala – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.3$ , $p_b = 10^{-10}$
	R. Hippocampus – L. Thalamus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.38$ , $p_b = 9 \times 10^{-21}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Orientation</i>	R. Amygdala – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.26$ , $p_b = 2 \times 10^{-7}$
	R. Superior frontal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.32$ , $p_b = 4 \times 10^{-14}$
Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) <i>Sum of boxes</i>	R. Amygdala – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw</i> , $r = -0.29$ , $p_b = 6 \times 10^{-10}$
	R. Hippocampus – L. Thalamus <i>Augmented</i> , $r = -0.37$ , $p_b = 5 \times 10^{-20}$
Number of MRI Sessions	R. Middle temporal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Raw</i> , $r = 0.35$ , $p_b = 10^{-16}$

	R. Precuneus cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = 0.38, p_b = 5 \times 10^{-22}</math></i>
Number of PET Sessions	R. Hippocampus – R. Fusiform cortex <i>Raw, <math>r = 0.3, p_b = 10^{-8}</math></i>
	R. Cuneus cortex – L. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = 0.34, p_b = 3 \times 10^{-12}</math></i>
Number of CT Sessions	R. Hippocampus – R. Fusiform cortex <i>Raw, <math>r = 0.23, p_b = 0.03</math></i>
	R. Superior frontal cortex – R. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = 0.25, p_b = 0.0004</math></i>
ADRC Clinical Data	L. Superior parietal cortex – L. Precuneus cortex <i>Raw, <math>r = 0.31, p_b = 2 \times 10^{-12}</math></i>
	R. Inferior parietal cortex – R. Fusiform cortex <i>Augmented, <math>r = 0.31, p_b = 9 \times 10^{-13}</math></i>

**Table 3:** Significant correlations of non-MRI variables with brain connectivity in PREVENT-AD.

Non-MRI variable	Most correlated brain structural connection
Age	R. Hippocampus – R. Thalamus <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.32, p_b = 0.003</math></i>
	R. Thalamus – L. Hippocampus <i>Augmented, <math>r = -0.33, p_b = 0.001</math></i>
Age of mother at AD-like dementia onset	R. Ventral diencephalon – L. Banks of superior temporal sulcus <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.36, p_b = 0.006</math></i>
Tau phosphorylated at Thr181 (P-tau) concentration in CSF	R. Caudate – L. Caudal middle frontal cortex <i>Raw, <math>r = 0.45, p_b = 0.04</math></i>

**Table 4:** Significant correlations of non-MRI variables with brain connectivity in HCP.

Non-MRI variable	Most correlated brain structural connection
Height	Brainstem – L. Lingual cortex <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.25, p_b = 0.02</math></i>
Weight	R. Ventral diencephalon – L. Ventral diencephalon <i>Raw, <math>r = -0.26, p_b = 0.006</math></i>

## 4. Discussion

Although more correlations were initially found to be significant with raw than augmented structural connectivity (in three out of four databases), visual inspection of the data led to discarding many of the former – but none of the latter – as spurious, implying more robustness and reliability of the augmented structural connections. Spuriousness was often because raw (direct) connectivity between an ROI pair was zero for all except a few subjects that dramatically influenced the correlation calculation, in contrast to augmented connectivity that is always positive in a network with a single connected component. Eventually, a total of 34 relationships with raw connectivity and 37 with augmented connectivity passed the Pearson correlation, Bonferroni correction, and visual inspection. Out of 28 variables correlated with both types of connectivity, 26 were more significantly correlated with augmented than raw connectivity.

More variables were found to be significantly related to brain connectivity in ADNI-2 and OASIS-3 than in PREVENT-AD and HCP, possibly due to many more variables that were tested in the latter databases (hence more aggressive correction for multiple comparisons), as well as the fact that PREVENT-AD and HCP included only healthy subjects, with more limited ranges of clinical scores (e.g. MMSE) than ADNI-2 and OASIS-3.

The most prominent non-MRI variable that was consistently correlated with structural connectivity was age. A negative correlation was observed between age and hippocampal connectivity in all databases except HCP. The limited age range in the young population of HCP may be the reason why this relationship was not detected in this database, given that the standard deviations of age were (in decreasing order) 9.1 years in OASIS-3, 6.9 years in ADNI-2, 5.1 years in PREVENT-AD, but only 3.6 years in HCP. In fact, the statistical significance of the age correlation decreased in the same database order.

Clinical scores that were found to be significantly related to brain connectivity showed the consistent trend of healthier score being linked to increased connectivity. The only exception was the significant relationship of P-tau with the connection between the right caudate and the left caudal middle frontal cortex in PREVENT-AD, which was unanticipatedly *positive*. Nonetheless, we had already observed – in a different database with a different connectivity quantification method – a similarly unexpected strengthening of caudal structural connectivity with worsening cognitive status [18, 37]. In fact, volume [38] and fractional anisotropy (FA) [39] of the caudate have been reported to increase in pre-symptomatic familial AD, which might have also led to the aforementioned relationship we observed in PREVENT-AD (that includes healthy subjects at risk of AD). Such an increase in the measured structural connectivity in pre-symptomatic subjects may indicate a compensatory effect [40], or could stem from other factors (e.g., selective axonal loss can increase FA in regions with fiber crossing [39, 41, 42]).

The number of imaging sessions and data available for a subject in OASIS-3 was positively related to (mostly) hippocampal connectivity. This could be attributable to a higher follow-up rate for

those with healthier hippocampi, as individuals with MCI and dementia have been shown to have lower retention rates in research studies than those with normal cognition [43, 44].

With larger ICV, brain regions become farther apart from each other, thus harder to reach by streamline tractography. Therefore, we decided to control for ICV in our regression analysis to avoid underestimation of brain connectivity. Doing so eliminated (in some databases) possibly spurious correlation of brain connectivity with variables that might be correlated with ICV, i.e., weight, strength, sex, and alcohol consumption. Correlation of brain connectivity with sex [45], in particular, remained inconclusive, given that it disappeared after ICV adjustment in PREVENT-AD and HCP, as is typically seen in neuroimaging studies [46, 47], and appeared in ADNI-2 only after ICV adjustment, which could be a sign of an introduced (previously absent) ICV bias [48] (especially as the direction of the relationship was opposite to that in OASIS-3).

## 5. Conclusions

We conducted a retrospective exploratory study to examine the associations between brain structural connectivity and non-MRI variables, using data from four (including three AD-related) public dMRI databases. Unlike hypothesis-driven research, where conjectured relationships between specific variables are tested, we calculated the correlation between all brain connections and non-MRI variables in our dataset without prior assumption, while stringently correcting for multiple comparisons, with the aim of discovering connectomic relationships. Replication of our findings in other databases and with other connectivity quantification methods is a subject of future research.

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B. Fischl has a financial interest in CorticoMetrics, a company whose medical pursuits focus on brain imaging and measurement technologies. His interests were reviewed and are managed by Massachusetts General Hospital and Mass General Brigham in accordance with their conflict-of-interest policies.

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