



# Classification of Alzheimer's disease and prediction of mild cognitive impairment-to-Alzheimer's conversion from structural magnetic resonance imaging using feature ranking and a genetic algorithm



Iman Beheshti<sup>a,\*</sup>, Hasan Demirel<sup>b</sup>, Hiroshi Matsuda<sup>a</sup>, for the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative<sup>1</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Integrative Brain Imaging Center, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, 4-1-1, Ogawahigashi-cho, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8551, Japan

<sup>b</sup> Biomedical Image Processing Group, Department of Electrical & Electronic Engineering, Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Mersin 10, Turkey

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## ABSTRACT

We developed a novel computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) system that uses feature-ranking and a genetic algorithm to analyze structural magnetic resonance imaging data; using this system, we can predict conversion of mild cognitive impairment (MCI)-to-Alzheimer's disease (AD) at between one and three years before clinical diagnosis. The CAD system was developed in four stages. First, we used a voxel-based morphometry technique to investigate global and local gray matter (GM) atrophy in an AD group compared with healthy controls (HCs). Regions with significant GM volume reduction were segmented as volumes of interest (VOIs). Second, these VOIs were used to extract voxel values from the respective atrophy regions in AD, HC, stable MCI (sMCI) and progressive MCI (pMCI) patient groups. The voxel values were then extracted into a feature vector. Third, at the feature-selection stage, all features were ranked according to their respective *t*-test scores and a genetic algorithm designed to find the optimal feature subset. The Fisher criterion was used as part of the objective function in the genetic algorithm. Finally, the classification was carried out using a support vector machine (SVM) with 10-fold cross validation. We evaluated the proposed automatic CAD system by applying it to baseline values from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) dataset (160 AD, 162 HC, 65 sMCI and 71 pMCI subjects). The experimental results indicated that the proposed system is capable of distinguishing between sMCI and pMCI patients, and would be appropriate for practical use in a clinical setting.

## 1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a form of progressive irreversible dementia that occurs most frequently in older adults. AD gradually defaces the regions of the brain that are responsible for memory, thinking, learning, and other cognitive abilities [1]. It has been estimated that the number of patients who suffer from AD will double in the next two decades, and will reach 13.8 million people by 2050 [2]. In America, AD is one of the top 10 causes of death that cannot be cured or prevented [1]. Early detection may help to clarify the mechanisms underlying AD and to improve the quality of life for AD patients [1,3].

Mild cognitive impairment (MCI), a prodromal stage of AD, is a

high-risk dementia condition in which acquired cognitive deficiency has no significant effect on the functional activities of daily living [2]. Patients with MCI have an increased risk of eventually developing AD. Recent studies have shown that up to 20% of people aged 65 and older may have MCI [2]. Recently, neuroimaging techniques, such as structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI) [4–11], functional MRI [12–14], diffusion tensor imaging [15–17], positron emission tomography (PET), and single photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) [18–21] have been used successfully for AD classification and the prediction of MCI-to-AD conversion. Despite recent developments in the early detection of AD, the prediction of disease progression is still challenging and requires further investigation.

In this study, we present a computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) system

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [Iman.beheshti@ncnp.go.jp](mailto:Iman.beheshti@ncnp.go.jp) (I. Beheshti).

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that applies voxel-based morphometry (VBM) analysis to sMRI data in order to make an early prediction of conversion to AD at between one and three years before clinical diagnosis. Such prediction is useful in determining a subject's clinical treatment plan or in judgment of the clinical trial for basic drugs to treat AD. Data from sMRI of the brain have been widely used to predict early conversion to AD, and VBM analysis is a widely used approach for this purpose [11]. Many researchers have used sMRI feature extraction for AD classification or the prediction of MCI-to-AD conversion using a number of different methods that include morphometry [22–24], measurement of the hippocampus and the medial temporal lobe [25–31], regions of interest (ROI)/volume of interest (VOI) [32–34], and gray matter (GM) voxels in the automatic segmentation of images [35]. In this paper, we propose an automatic feature-selection method based on feature ranking and a genetic algorithm (GA) for AD classification and prediction of MCI-to-AD conversion, which are the two most difficult tasks in AD detection studies. The proposed feature-selection method was realized by extracting voxel-values as raw-feature data from VOIs obtained from VBM analysis. The extracted raw-feature vectors were then reduced to lower-dimensional feature vectors using the proposed feature-selection method.

In addition, we extracted features from stable MCI (sMCI) and progressive MCI (pMCI) samples based on GM atrophy patterns in AD subjects and HCs. We then evaluated the performance of the proposed method on baseline data from 458 samples from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) dataset (160 AD, 162 HC, 65 sMCI and 71 pMCI subjects). In a direct comparison, the proposed CAD system exhibited better performance than classifiers using all raw features and principal component analysis (PCA) data reduction. The accuracy of the proposed CAD system for classifying AD/HC and sMCI/pMCI using baseline sMRI data was 93.01% and 75%, respectively. In addition, when compared to state-of-the-art techniques for predicting MCI-to-Alzheimer's conversion, the experimental results show that the performance of the proposed CAD system was comparable to that of alternative methods using only baseline MRI data.

## 2. Materials

### 2.1. Image acquisition and samples

The baseline MRI scans and data used in this work were obtained from 3 T T1-weighted images, which were typically  $240 \times 256 \times 176$  voxels with a voxel size of  $1 \text{ mm} \times 1 \text{ mm} \times 1.2 \text{ mm}$ . MR image corrections such as GradWarp and N3 were also applied to correct the geometric distortion caused by gradient non-linearity [36] and bias field, respectively, and to balance the lack of homogeneity due to the absence of uniformity in the radio frequency receiver coils [37]. We divided the dataset into two main groups. The aim was to separate the data used for VBM-based 3D mask generation from the data used for classification. Group 1 (including 68 AD patients and 68 healthy controls (HCs)) was used to model the VBM 3D mask. Group 2 (including 92 AD, 94 HC, 65 stable MCI (sMCI) and 71 progressive MCI (pMCI) subjects) was used for feature extraction, classification and validation. The samples in Groups 1 and 2 were totally independent. We used only baseline data.

### 2.2. Defining volumes of interest (VOIs) (Group 1)

Group 1 consisted of 136 subjects divided into HC and AD cohorts. Table 1 shows details of the demographics and clinical characteristics of the samples used in Group 1. We used this group in the VBM analysis to find regions of GM atrophy in patients with AD compared to the HCs. These regions were segmented as a 3D mask to extract voxel values in the feature-extraction stage. The data used to define the VOI and respective 3D mask were the same as previously reported [38].

**Table 1**

Characteristics of the subjects used to model the VBM 3D mask (Group 1).

|             | AD<br>(n=68) | HC<br>(n=68) |
|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| Age (mean)  | 74.33 ± 6.41 | 74.14 ± 4.95 |
| Range       | [60–82]      | [66–84]      |
| MMSE (mean) | 22.83 ± 2.56 | 29.38 ± 0.71 |
| Range       | [16–25]      | [28–30]      |
| CDR (mean)  | 0.75 ± 0.41  | 0.0 ± 0      |
| [0/0.5/1/2] | [0/44/19/5]  | [68/0/0/0]   |
| f/m         | 34/34        | 34/34        |

Note: AD, Alzheimer's Disease patients; CDR, Clinical Dementia Rating; HC, Healthy Control patients; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; F, Female; M, Male.

### 2.3. Feature extraction and classification (Group 2)

Group 2 consisted of 322 samples that were divided into 4 cohorts: 1) AD subjects; 2) HC subjects; 3) sMCI subjects, where MCI had been diagnosed for at least 36 months; and 4) pMCI subjects, where there was a baseline MCI diagnosis but conversion to AD had occurred within 1, 2 or 3 years since the baseline. Details of the demographic and clinical characteristics of the samples used in this paper are shown in Table 2.

## 3. Methodology of the proposed computer-aided design (CAD) system

In this section, we introduce the methodology used to develop the proposed automatic CAD system, based on feature ranking, followed by a GA for early detection of conversion from MCI to AD. First, the 3D T1-weighted MRI data samples from Group 1 were processed using VBM analysis to identify GM regions that were significantly more atrophied in the AD patients than the HCs. The regions of GM atrophy were used to form VOIs, which defined the 3D mask to be used for feature extraction. We then used the 3D mask generated using the Group 1 samples from the first stage of the CAD process, i.e., the derivation of VOIs, to extract voxels as raw features from the subjects in Group 2. In the training set, a statistical *t*-test was then used to rank the raw features. Features with *t*-test values higher than 70% of the highest *t*-test value were considered to be a subset of the top-ranked features of the entire set to be used by the GA to find the optimal features. This threshold provided a good trade-off between the computational cost and accuracy. This subset (i.e., the top-ranked features) was applied to the GA with the Fisher criterion as part of the objective function to identify the optimal distinctive features with the minimum number of selected features. The Fisher criterion helped in selecting an optimal subset of features with the most distinctive information for the classification process. Finally, a linear SVM classifier was used to evaluate the proposed technique. Fig. 1 illustrates

**Table 2**

Characteristics of the subjects used for feature extraction and classification (Group 2).

|             | AD<br>(n=92) | HC<br>(n=94) | sMCI<br>(n=65) | pMCI<br>(n=71) |
|-------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| Age (mean)  | 75.32 ± 6.46 | 73.35 ± 5.68 | 70.86 ± 7.04   | 74.27 ± 7.78   |
| Range       | [60–90]      | [55–81]      | [55–88]        | [56–88]        |
| MMSE (mean) | 23.45 ± 2.45 | 29.73 ± 3.85 | 27.80 ± 1.48   | 26.05 ± 2.87   |
| Range       | [18–25]      | [27–30]      | [25–30]        | [23–30]        |
| CDR (mean)  | 0.72 ± 0.39  | 0.00 ± 0.00  | 0.50 ± 0.00    | 0.50 ± 0.00    |
| [0/0.5/1/2] | [0/58/30/4]  | [94/0/0/0]   | [0/65/0/0]     | [0/71/0/0]     |
| f/m         | 50/42        | 50/44        | 39/26          | 44/27          |

Note: All data are presented in mean ± standard deviation mode. AD, people with Alzheimer's disease; CDR, Clinical Dementia Rating; HC, healthy control participants; sMCI, stable Mild Cognitive Impairment; pMCI, progressive Mild Cognitive Impairment; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; F, Female; M, Male.

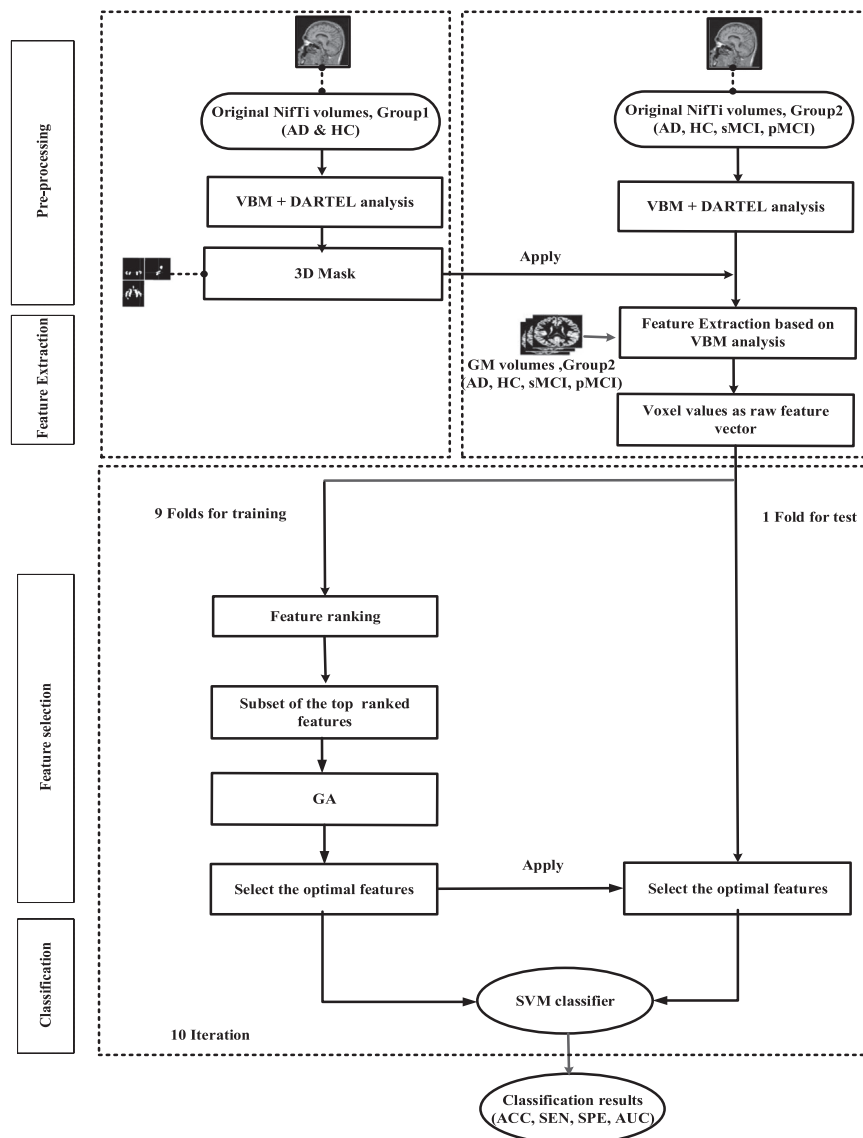


Fig. 1. Pipeline of the proposed automatic CAD system.

the framework of the proposed automatic CAD system.

### 3.1. Magnet resource imaging (MRI) preprocessing

Preprocessing of the MRI data was carried out using SPM8 software (<http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm>) and the VBM8 toolbox (<http://dbm.neuro.uni-jena.de/vbm>). VBM is an advanced technique that is used to assess the structure of the whole brain with voxel-by-voxel comparisons between subject groups to distinguish degenerative diseases with dementia [39]. Several recent studies have used the VBM method for the early detection of atrophic changes in AD [39–43]. In the present study, the Diffeomorphic Anatomic Registration Through Exponentiated Lie (DARTEL) approach was used as a part of the VBM analysis to enhance inter-subject registration of the MRI images [44,45]. In the VBM8 toolbox, all 3D MR images were corrected for the bias field with regard to homogeneity. The corrected images were normalized and then segmented into GM, white matter (WM), and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) components. Using a nonlinear deformation, the normalized segmented images were modulated. Only GM components were considered in the current study. All GM components were spatially smoothed with an 8 mm full-width half-maximum Gaussian kernel. After spatial preprocessing, the smoothed,

modulated, DARTEL-warped, and normalized GM datasets from Group 1 were used for statistical analysis, whereas datasets from Group 2 were used in the feature extraction phase. The levels of atrophy in regional GM volume were generated by voxel-based analysis over the whole brain for Group 1 subjects. In this manner, the smoothed, modulated, DARTEL-warped, and normalized GM datasets of Group 1 were subjected to the general linear model to detect GM volume changes using voxel-wise two-sample *t*-tests in SPM8. Age was added to the matrix design as a nuisance variable. Absolute threshold masking was adjusted at 0.1 to avoid possible edge effects among GM, WM or CSF components. Significance was set at  $p < 0.01$ , with correction for family-wise error (FWE), and the threshold was set at 1400 voxels for two-sample comparisons. Fig. 2 illustrates the processing framework of the VBM analysis used to identify significant levels of GM atrophy in the AD relative to the HC samples in Group 1 through SPM8.

### 3.2. Feature extraction

The feature-extraction procedure based on the preprocessing analysis was then applied to isolate the VOIs. Brain regions with significantly decreased GM volumes, obtained using VBM analysis in

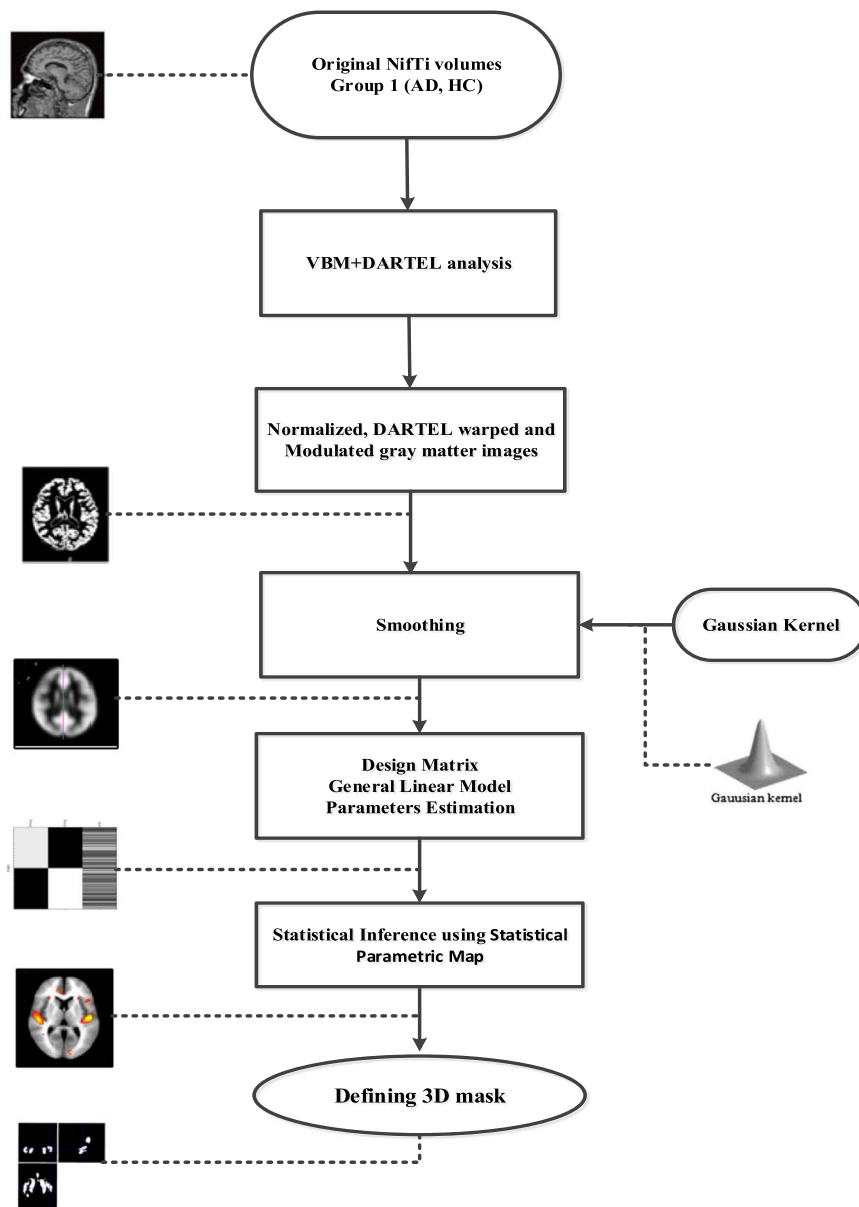


Fig. 2. The VBM plus DARTEL processing pipeline to reveal significant gray matter atrophies among group 1 samples using SPM8.

AD patients relative to HCs in Group 1 subjects, were segmented as a 3D mask. Because sMCI samples appear more healthy, whereas pMCI samples are closer to AD [46], we decided to use the 3D mask not only to extract features for AD and HC samples but also for pMCI and sMCI subjects. The mask was therefore applied to all the smoothed, normalized, modulated, DARTEL-warped, GM density volumes obtained from the preprocessing stage in Group 2 subjects (92 AD, 94 HC, 65 sMCI and 71 pMCI subjects) in order to extract voxel values from atrophy regions as raw-feature vectors.

### 3.3. Feature selection

As the number of samples available for training is generally very small in comparison to the dimensionality of feature vectors extracted from MRI data (e.g., 36,529 voxels), training an accurate classifier is a challenging process. Many recent studies have explored different feature-selection methods to address this issue. In this study, we chose a novel feature-selection method for high-dimensional data, which combines feature ranking with a GA to reduce the dimensionality, and to select optimal features for the high performance MCI conversion

prediction and AD classification. The performance of this method was evaluated using PCA data reduction and raw-feature vectors.

#### 3.3.1. Feature reduction based on principal component analysis (PCA)

The aim of the feature-reduction algorithm was to make available a set of new features to generate a low-dimensional representation of the original data. PCA is a statistical feature-reduction method, which helps extract a set of orthogonal principal components (PCs) from an original dataset [47,48]. Linear combinations of PCs are used to represent high-dimensional original data. Let  $\Gamma = [f^1, f^2, \dots, f^M]$  be a feature dataset including  $M$  features, where  $f^j = (x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j)^T$  is a vector of values of a feature  $f^j$  and  $N$  represents the number of samples. PCs are eigenvectors of the gamma matrix of data X as follows:

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N}(\Gamma - \bar{\Gamma})(\Gamma - \bar{\Gamma})^T, \tag{1}$$

where  $\bar{\Gamma}$  is the mean vector of each feature. Each PC is measured by its corresponding eigenvalue.

In this study, 10-fold cross validation was used to measure the performance of the classifiers. Ten-fold cross validation takes 90% of data through the training process and 10% through the testing of each clinical group (i.e., the AD/HC and sMCI/pMCI groups). The number of PCs,  $k$ , used to generate the projection vectors of the training and testing data was chosen based on the maximum number of training samples for the AD/HC and sMCI/pMCI pairs, respectively.

### 3.3.2. Feature ranking

Feature ranking helps evaluate the relevance of features and class variables in order to choose the most distinctive features. This method is effective in data with very high dimensionality [49]. Many researchers have investigated different feature-ranking methods as part of feature selection in the pattern recognition field [50–56]. Let  $\Gamma = [f^1, f^2, \dots, f^M]$  be a feature dataset including  $M$  features. The vector  $f^j = (x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j)^T$  is a vector of values of a feature  $f^j$  where  $x_i^j$  of this vector shows a feature value of the sample  $i^{th}$  and  $N$  is the number of samples. Applying a feature ranking algorithm to the feature data-set  $\Gamma$  generates a list of the features  $\Omega = [f_*^1, f_*^2, \dots, f_*^M]$  ordered by reduction importance. In this study, we used a statistical indicator, namely the  $t$ -test, to measure the level of separation/discrimination between two classes.  $T$ -test feature ranking has been used successfully in a number of machine learning studies [57–59]. The  $t$ -test measures the statistical significance of the value differences between two classes, as follows:

$$t - value = \frac{\mu_{c1} - \mu_{c2}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_{c1}^2}{n_{c1}} + \frac{\sigma_{c2}^2}{n_{c2}}}}, \tag{2}$$

where  $\mu_{c1}$ ,  $\sigma_{c1}^2$ ,  $n_{c1}$  and  $\mu_{c2}$ ,  $\sigma_{c2}^2$ ,  $n_{c2}$  are the mean, variance values, and number of samples of two classes,  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , respectively. To select the top informative features, all features were ranked according to the absolute value of their  $t$ -values. Based on feature ranking, we were able to choose the top discriminative  $q$  ranked features  $[f_*^1, f_*^2, \dots, f_*^q]$ , where  $q \leq M$ .  $q$  could be adjusted by the user or determined experimentally. In the present study,  $q$  was adjusted with features that were higher than 70% of the maximum  $t$ -test values of the training set in each fold. This threshold provided a good trade-off between computational cost and accuracy.

### 3.3.3. Feature selection using a genetic algorithm (GA)

In this section, we describe the GA used to find the optimum feature subset from the candidate features. We used a binary GA in this study. A chromosome was encoded as an array with length  $q$  bits containing binary numbers, as shown in Fig. 3. When *chromosome*  $[i^{th}]$  is 1, the  $i^{th}$  feature is selected as the optimal feature from the candidate features, otherwise the  $i^{th}$  feature is not selected. The main components of the GA comprised population initialization, fitness evaluation, selection, crossover and mutation operations, and termination judgment. The pipeline of the GA is illustrated in Fig. 4. The details of the main components are given below:

- a) Initial population. In the binary GA, the population consisted of all the chromosomes in each generation, which were coded as a binary string. In this study, we used a random population base for population initialization.
- b) Fitness function. In order to select the optimal feature subset from the candidate features, the following objective function was proposed:

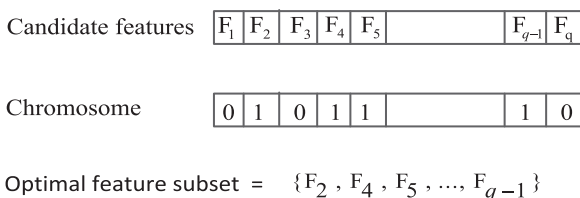


Fig. 3. Feature representation as *chromosome* in Binary GA.

$$\begin{aligned} \min Z \\ Z = E(1 + \alpha \cdot RF) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

where  $E$  is based on the Fisher criterion and calculated in the training part of each fold,  $\alpha$  is a constant coefficient and  $RF$  is the ratio of the number of selected features (number of selected features/length  $q$ ). The objective function finds the optimal features with the maximum discriminative and minimum number of features. In this study, the value of  $\alpha$  was adjusted to 0.5. The Fisher criterion evaluates the class separation between two groups of data and also helps to find the optimal features with the most discriminative information for the classification process. The Fisher criterion was calculated as follows:

$$FC = \frac{trace(S_B)}{trace(S_W)}, \tag{4}$$

where  $S_B$  is the between-class scatter matrix and  $S_W$  is the within-class scatter matrix [60]. For two classes,  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , the between-class scatter and within-class scatter matrices are defined as [62,63]:

$$S_B = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)(\mu_1 - \mu_2)^T \tag{5}$$

$$S_W = \sum_{X_i \in c_1} (X_i - \mu_1)(X_i - \mu_1)^T + \sum_{X_i \in c_2} (X_i - \mu_2)(X_i - \mu_2)^T \tag{6}$$

where  $\mu_1$  is the mean of the data in class 1 and  $\mu_2$  is the mean of the data in class 2. Because the proposed objective function is based on minimization, we used  $FC^{-1} = \frac{trace(S_W)}{trace(S_B)}$  as  $E$  in Eq. (3).

- c) Selection operator. The aim of selection operation is to select the parent individuals, which will participate in producing offspring for the next generation. In this study, we used a roulette wheel selection technique [50].
- d) Crossover operator. The goal of the crossover operator is to generate new individuals by recombining the genes of the chromosomes. In the proposed GA, the following crossover operators were used: single point, double point, and arithmetic. For each iteration in the GA process, one of the above crossover operators was randomly selected based on the wheel selection technique.
- e) Mutation operator. The mutation operator is normally initiated after the crossover process by randomly inverting one bit of an individual's chromosome to generate a child.
- f) Termination judgment. In the proposed feature-selection GA, the termination algorithm was either based on a predefined number of iterations or based on  $\beta$  iterations, where the difference between two objective functions does not exceed  $\epsilon$ . In this study, the values of  $\epsilon$  and  $\beta$  were adjusted to  $10^{-3}$  and 30, respectively.

Algorithm 1 outlines the pseudo-code used in the proposed method.

**Algorithm 1..** The procedure for determining the optimal subset of features based on the feature ranking and genetic algorithm.

- 
- $V \leftarrow component\_set(Data_{train}, Label_{train})$
  - $Ranked\ features \leftarrow t\text{-test\ feature\ ranking}(V)$
  - $Top\ ranked\ features \leftarrow The\ features\ higher\ than\ 70\% \text{ of the maximum } t\text{-test values}$
  - $Z \leftarrow \infty$
  - *Generate an Initial population*
  - *While not terminated condition*
  - $(S_w, S_B) \leftarrow compute\_scatter(selected\_features, Label_{train})$
  - $E \leftarrow \frac{trace(S_W)}{trace(S_B)}$
  - $q \leftarrow length\ of\ top\text{-ranked}\ features$
  - $RF \leftarrow number\ of\ selected\ features/q$
  - $\alpha \leftarrow 0.5$

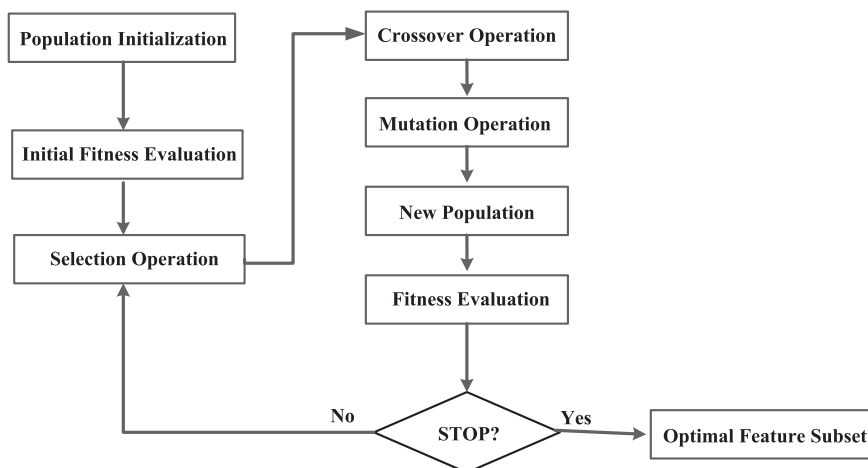


Fig. 4. Flowchart of the Genetic Algorithm.

- $Z \leftarrow E (1 + \alpha \cdot RF)$
- Calculate  $Z \leftarrow$  for each chromosome from the population
- Make the next population
  1. Selection operator
  2. Crossover operator
  3. Mutation operator
- End while
- Find the chromosome with minimum  $Z$
- Select the optimal- feature-subset

### 3.4. Classifier and performance evaluation

The classifier was operated using an SVM algorithm, a supervised learning method that has been widely used for AD classification problems [6,38,46,62–64]. In this study, an SVM algorithm using LIBSVM (<http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm/>) with a linear kernel was used for the AD classification and the prediction of MCI-to-AD conversion. In order to achieve a reliable measurement, all performance results were obtained through 10-fold cross validation. The classification results were calculated by means of accuracy (ACC), sensitivity (SEN), specificity (SPE), and area under the curve (AUC). These parameters are defined as follows:

$$ACC = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + FN + TN} \quad (7)$$

$$SEN = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (8)$$

$$SPE = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}, \quad (9)$$

where TP, TN, FN, and FP stand for true positive, true negative, false negative, and false positive, respectively.

## 4. Experimental results

The experimental data consisted of 458 samples from the ADNI dataset. We first arrived at the results of the preprocessing stage using a VBM and DARTEL analysis on 3D T1-weighted MRI scans to reveal the significance of the difference in volumetric regions with atrophy between the AD subjects in Group 1 and the HCs in the same group. Secondly, we used a 10-fold cross validation process to compare the performance of the proposed feature-selection method for AD classification and the prediction of MCI-to-AD conversion between a trial with PCA data reduction and a trial without feature selection (i.e., using all features). ACC (%), SEN (%), SPE (%), and AUC (%) performance metrics were used to assess the different scenarios.

### 4.1. Voxel-based morphometry on gray matter (GM) (Group 1)

The VBM and DARTEL analysis revealed significant GM atrophy in the right and left hippocampi, the right inferior parietal lobule, and the right anterior cingulate in patients with AD compared to the HCs in Group 1. Fig. 5 shows the significant regions of GM atrophy in the Group 1 subjects. The voxel locations of these significantly atrophied regions were segmented as a 3D mask. This mask was applied to the GM density volume results from the segmentation step in the VBM-DARTEL analysis of Group 2 to extract a total of 36,529 voxel values as a raw-feature vector.

### 4.2. Classification results for Alzheimer's disease (AD) and healthy control (HC) subjects

As described in Section 3.3, the proposed feature-selection method was accomplished with a feature-ranking strategy and by using a GA to find optimal top discriminative feature data from raw-feature vectors. The parameters of GA, such as the number of populations, number of iterations, probability of crossover and probability of mutation, were

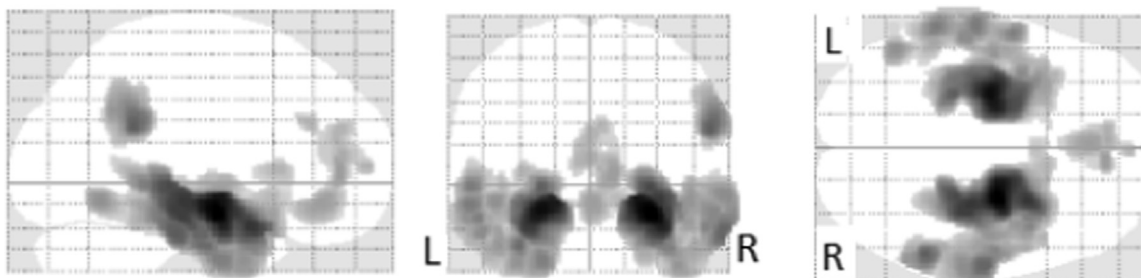


Fig. 5. Significant gray matter atrophy regions in subjects of group 1 [The image is reproduced from a previous study [38]].

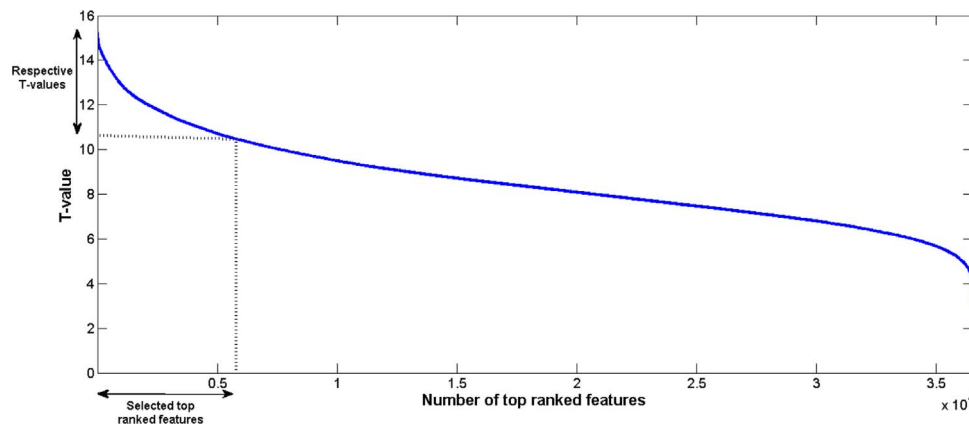


Fig. 6. *t*-test values for the respective ranked features in fold 1 training of AD/HC classification.

**Table 3**  
Classification results in fold 1, HC vs AD.

| Feature selection     | Number of features | ACC (%) |
|-----------------------|--------------------|---------|
| NO                    | 36529              | 78.94   |
| Yes (proposed method) | 1913               | 94.73   |

Note: ACC, Accuracy; AD, people with Alzheimer’s disease; HC, healthy control participants.

**Table 4**  
Comparison of the performances of the proposed feature selection method with raw-feature vectors and PCA data reduction for AD classification.

|          | Feature Selection | ACC (%) | SEN (%) | SPE (%) | AUC (%) |
|----------|-------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| HC vs AD | No                | 87.63   | 85.86   | 89.36   | 88.70   |
|          | PCA               | 88.70   | 89.36   | 88.04   | 88.70   |
|          | Proposed method   | 93.01   | 89.13   | 96.80   | 93.51   |

Note: ACC, Accuracy; SEN, Sensitivity; SPE, Specificity; AUC, Area Under Curve; AD, people with Alzheimer’s disease; HC, healthy Control participants; PCA, Principal Component Analysis.

set at 50, 200, 0.8 and 0.3, respectively. As an example, Fig. 6 shows all *t*-test values for the data in the training set from fold 1 of the HC vs AD samples in Group 2. The maximum *t*-test value is 15.24. Based on the proposed approach to choose the features higher than 70% of the maximum *t*-test values, the features with respective *t*-test values between 10.67 and 15.24 were selected. As a result, 5101 top-ranked features were selected as the top subset of the most discriminative features. This subset was applied to the GA to find the optimum subset based on GA feature selection, with the Fisher criterion as part of the objective function. A total of 1913 features were selected as belonging to the optimal and high-performance feature subset. Table 3 shows the accuracy performance of data from fold 1 of the HC vs AD samples in Group 2 for raw-feature vectors together with the proposed feature selection based on feature ranking and the GA. As can be seen by the data in Table 5, the proposed method is able to improve the performance accuracy to a significant degree, and can also minimize the number of selected features to speed up the learning process. Table 4 presents the average of the performance obtained by 10-fold cross validation between the AD and HC samples from Group 2. With 186 samples for classification in Group 2 (i.e., 94 HCs and 92 AD subjects), a 10-fold cross validation suggested 167 PCs through the PCA process for AD and HC classification. Thus, the number of PCs was chosen as  $k=167$  to generate the projection vectors for the training and testing data. To evaluate the overall performance of the proposed method, PCA data reduction and raw features, a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve for AD and HC classification was generated and is shown in Fig. 7(a). Looking at Table 4 and Fig. 7(a), it is clear

that the proposed feature-selection method, based on feature ranking and the GA, improves performance to a significant degree when compared to classification using raw features or PCA data reduction. For example, the mean accuracy increases from 87.63% to 93.01% for AD/HC. Our accuracy of 93.01% for AD/HC compares well with other recent classification experiments for separating AD data from HC results, based on MRI data [8,63,65].

#### 4.3. Prediction results for the conversion of stable and progressive MCI to AD

As described in Section 3.2, the GM atrophy pattern between AD subjects and HCs was used to extract significant features from sMCI and pMCI subjects. Table 5 presents the ACC, SEN, SPE, and AUC measurements obtained from 10-fold cross validation for the MCI conversion prediction between sMCI and pMCI subjects. With 136 samples (i.e., 65 sMCI and 71 pMCI subjects), a 10-fold cross validation suggested 122 PCs through the PCA process for this task. Thus, the number of PCs was chosen as  $k=122$  to generate the projection vectors for the training and testing data. Fig. 7(b) shows the ROC curves related to the proposed method, PCA data reduction and raw features for the sMCI and pMCI conversion prediction. As can be seen in Table 5 and Fig. 7(b), the proposed feature-selection method, based on feature ranking and the GA, consistently outperforms the PCA data reduction or raw features for MCI conversion prediction. For example, the proposed method had an ACC performance of 75%, whereas PCA-based data reduction and the raw-feature vector methods had ACCs of 69.11% and 68.38%, respectively, for distinguishing sMCI subjects from pMCI subjects. The 75% accuracy of our proposed method with regard to sMCI and pMCI conversion within 36 months compares well with other recent classification experiments on the separation of sMCI from pMCI results using MRI data [8,10,46,63,65–68].

### 5. Discussion

Many recent studies have investigated the use of advanced pattern analysis methods to extract complex spatial patterns from the brain structure [13,35,66,69,70]. This is especially the case for high-dimensional pattern analysis in a number of neuroimaging studies [6,33,71,72]. For example, in one study [71], the authors introduced an SVM-recursive feature elimination (SVM-RFE) technique for feature ranking, and used SVM for classification. In another study [6], the authors introduced a statistical feature-selection method based on the probability distribution function (PDF) of the VOI to generate a statistical pattern of the VOI to represent the entire sMRI. In the present study, we introduced an automatic feature-selection method based on feature ranking and a GA for the VOI, which is able to select

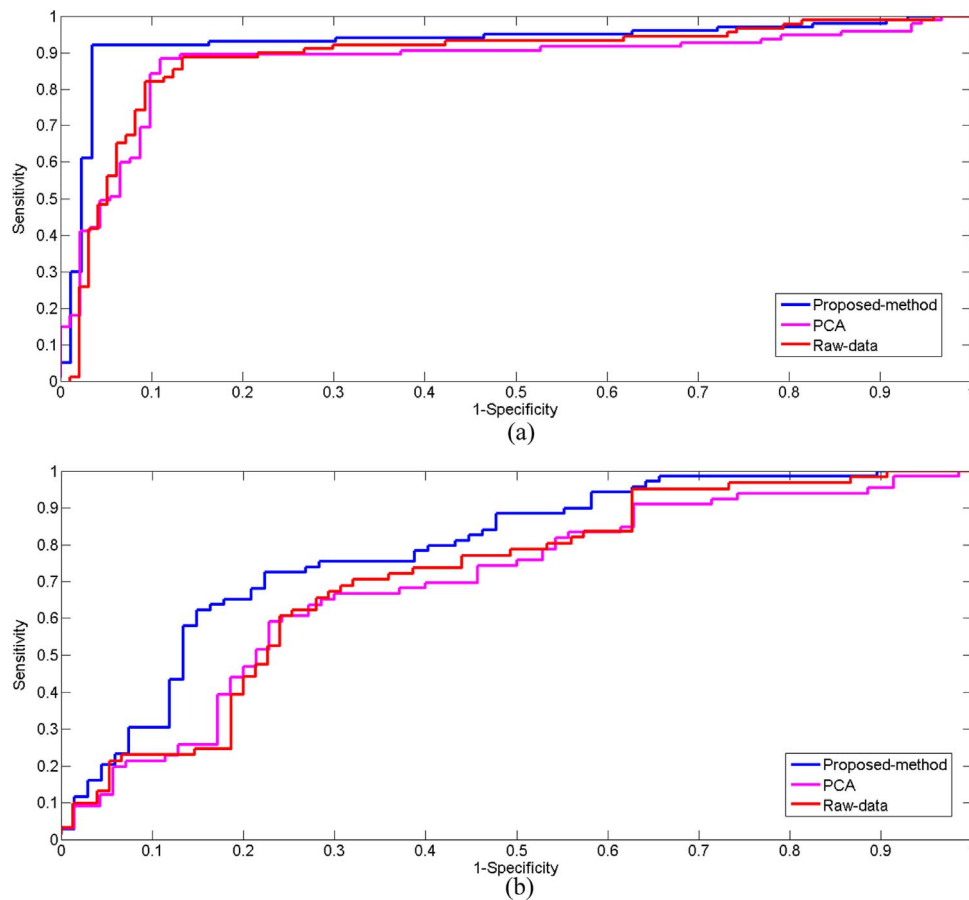


Fig. 7. The ROC curve of the proposed method, PCA data reduction and raw-feature-vectors. (a) AD/HC and (b) pMCI/sMCI.

Table 5

Comparison of the performances of the proposed feature selection method with raw-feature vectors and PCA data reduction for MCI conversion prediction.

|              | Feature selection | ACC (%) | SEN (%) | SPE (%) | AUC (%) |
|--------------|-------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| pMCI vs sMCI | No                | 68.38   | 67.69   | 69.01   | 68.93   |
|              | PCA               | 69.11   | 64.61   | 73.23   | 68.38   |
|              | Proposed method   | 75.00   | 76.92   | 73.23   | 75.08   |

Note: ACC, Accuracy; SEN, Sensitivity; SPE, Specificity; AUC, Area Under Curve; sMCI, stable Mild Cognitive Impairment; pMCI, progressive Mild Cognitive Impairment; PCA, Principal Component Analysis.

the most discriminative features from a high-dimensional pattern into a lower-dimensional space. In the proposed feature-selection strategy, the Fisher criterion was employed as part of the objective function to find the most discriminative features as an optimal subset. The Fisher criterion helps to select the optimum subset of features with maximum separation between two groups. Using a GA, the proposed feature-selection method not only selects the top discriminative features but also minimizes the dimensionality of the input vectors to low-dimensional space. The experimental results indicate that the proposed feature-selection approach is suitable for high-dimensional pattern recognition, especially for MCI conversion prediction and AD classification. Recent studies have shown that MCI (including both pMCI and sMCI) is a heterogeneous condition where sMCI patients appear more healthy and pMCI patients appear closer to AD [46]. In addition, most of the existing methods for MCI conversion prediction use data taken directly from MCI subjects, ignoring data from other related domains (i.e., AD subjects and HCs) that may provide significant additional data predicting MCI conversion [46]. In this study, we defined a VBM mask based on regions of GM atrophy from AD and HC subjects for feature

extraction using pMCI and sMCI subjects. The experimental results demonstrate that extracting features from sMCI and pMCI samples based on GM atrophy patterns in AD subjects and HCs through VBM analysis can also be useful for MCI prediction. Although the proposed method demonstrated a desirable performance for AD detection and MCI conversion prediction, some limitations should be considered in the present study. First, we evaluated the proposed method on an ADNI dataset. In the future, it will be important to evaluate our method using other datasets. Second, we used a small data-sample size, especially for to predict the conversion from MCI to AD (i.e., 65 sMCI and 71 pMCI). This would be worth evaluating on a large dataset in the future. As part of a future study, we suggest employing other meta-heuristic optimization algorithm such as simulated annealing, particle swarm optimization and ant colony optimization for AD classification and MCI conversion prediction. Another priority for future studies will be to use volumetric subcortical measures from structural MRI instead of voxel-based features.

### 5.1. Comparisons with other studies

Several studies have investigated neuroimaging techniques for the early detection of AD, with a focus on conversion in MCI subjects and separating AD patients from HCs. In one study [65], researchers proposed a multitask learning method based on multimodality data such as MRI, fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography (FDG-PET), and CSF. They reported an accuracy of 93.30% and 73.9% on AD/HC and pMCI/sMCI samples, respectively. One study [73] used cortical thickness data with the manifold harmonic transform method using MRI data. They achieved an SEN of 82% and an SPE of 93% on AD/HC, and an SEN of 63% and an SPE of 76% on sMCI and pMCI samples, respectively. Another study [74] presented a morphological factor method with an ACC



**Table 6**  
Classification of Alzheimer's disease and healthy control subjects.

| Author                   | Data            | AD/HC        | Validation method | ACC (%)      | SEN (%)      | SPE (%)      | AUC (%)      |
|--------------------------|-----------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Zhang et al., 2012 [65]  | MRI             | 45/50        | 10 Fold           | 84.80        | –            | –            | –            |
| Zhang et al., 2012 [65]  | MRI + CSF + PET | 45/50        | 10 Fold           | 93.30        | –            | –            | –            |
| Cho et al., 2012 [73]    | MRI             | 128/160      | –                 | –            | 82           | 93           | –            |
| Liu et al., 2014 [67]    | MRI+FDG-PET     | 51/52        | 10 Fold           | 94.37        | 94.71        | 94.04        | 97.24        |
| Westman et al., 2012 [8] | MRI             | 96/111       | 10 Fold           | 87           | 83.3         | 90.1         | 93.00        |
| Westman et al., 2012 [8] | MRI + CSF       | 96/111       | 10 Fold           | 91.8         | 88.5         | 94.6         | 95.80        |
| Hu et al., 2016 [63]     | MRI             | 228/188      | Leave-one-out     | 84.13        | 82.45        | 85.63        | 90.00        |
| <b>Proposed method</b>   | <b>MRI</b>      | <b>92/94</b> | <b>10 Fold</b>    | <b>93.01</b> | <b>89.13</b> | <b>96.80</b> | <b>93.51</b> |

**Table 7**  
Classification of pMCI and sMCI subjects.

| Author                       | Data                               | pMCI/<br>sMCI | Validation<br>method | ACC (%)      | SEN (%)      | SPE (%)      | AUC (%)      | Conversion time<br>(months) |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|----------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------------|
| Zhang et al., 2012 [65]      | MRI                                | 43/48         | 10 Fold              | 62.00        | 56.60        | 60.20        | –            | 0–24                        |
| Zhang et al., 2012 [65]      | MRI + CSF + PET                    | 43/48         | 10 Fold              | 73.90        | 68.80        | 73.60        | –            | 0–24                        |
| Cho et al., 2012 [73]        | MRI                                | 72/131        | –                    | –            | 63           | 76           | –            | 0–18                        |
| Aksu et al., 2011 [74]       | MRI                                | 20/29         | –                    | 72.3         | –            | –            | –            | 0–36                        |
| Young et al., 2013 [68]      | MRI                                | 47/96         | –                    | 61.5         | –            | –            | –            | 0–36                        |
| Young et al., 2013 [68]      | MRI + PET + CSF + APOE             | 47/96         | –                    | 74.1         | –            | –            | –            | 0–36                        |
| Liu et al., 2014 [67]        | MRI+FDG-PET                        | 43/56         | 10 Fold              | 67.83        | 64.88        | 70.00        | 69.57        | 0–18                        |
| Westman et al., 2012 [8]     | MRI                                | 81/81         | 10 Fold              | 65.40        | 65.40        | 65.40        | 73.10        | 0–36                        |
| Westman et al., 2012 [8]     | MRI + CSF                          | 81/81         | 10 Fold              | 68.5         | 74.1         | 63           | 76.00        | 0–36                        |
| Cheng et al., 2015 [46]      | MRI                                | 43/56         | 10 Fold              | 73.4         | 74.3         | 72.1         | 76.40        | 0–24                        |
| Cheng et al., 2015 [46]      | MRI+CSF+PET                        | 43/56         | 10 Fold              | 79.4         | 84.5         | 72.7         | 84.80        | <b>0–24</b>                 |
| Moradi et al., 2015 [10]     | MRI                                | 164/100       | 10 Fold              | 74.74        | 88.85        | 51.59        | 76.61        | <b>0–36</b>                 |
| Moradi et al., 2015 [10]     | MRI+ age and cognitive<br>measures | 164/100       | 10 Fold              | 81.72        | 86.65        | 73.64        | 90.20        | <b>0–36</b>                 |
| Davatzikos et al., 2010 [66] | MRI+CSF                            | 69/170        | 5 Fold               | 61.70        | 84.20        | 51.20        | 67.70        | <b>0–12</b>                 |
| Hu et al., 2016 [63]         | MRI                                | 71/62         | Leave-one-out        | 76.69        | 71.83        | 82.26        | 79.00        | <b>0–36</b>                 |
| <b>Proposed method</b>       | <b>MRI</b>                         | <b>71/65</b>  | <b>10 Fold</b>       | <b>75.00</b> | <b>76.92</b> | <b>73.23</b> | <b>75.08</b> | <b>0–36</b>                 |

of 72.3% from MRI data on sMCI and pMCI subjects. In that study [68], the authors investigated a Gaussian process approach using several combined multimodality data sources (i.e., MRI, PET, CSF, and APOE genotypes). They reported a balanced ACC of 74.1% on sMCI/pMCI groups. Another study [67] used multimodality data (MRI and PET) with a multitask feature-selection method with an accuracy of 94.37% and 67.83% on AD/HC and pMCI/sMCI samples, respectively. In one study [66], the researchers combined statistical analysis and pattern classification methods by using multimodality data (MRI and CSF) with an ACC of 61.7% on pMCI/sMCI samples. Another study [8] investigated a multi-variate data analysis method using multimodality data (i.e., MRI and CSF). The researchers reported an ACC of 68.5% on pMCI/sMCI data and an ACC of 91.8% on AD and HC data. In their study [46], the authors introduced domain transfer learning using multimodality data (i.e., MRI, CSF and PET), with an ACC of 79.4% on pMCI/sMCI samples. In another study [10], the authors employed VBM analysis of GM as a feature, combining age and cognitive measures. They reported an ACC of 82% on pMCI/sMCI samples. In another study [63], the authors presented a multiscale feature extraction from baseline MRI data. They reported an ACC of 84.13% in the classification of AD/HC and 76.69% for prediction of pMCI/sMCI. Tables 6, 7 show the detailed parameters of classification performance using various methods for the AD/HC and pMCI/sMCI classifications, which were the main tasks in the current study. As can be seen in Tables 6, 7, the performance of the proposed system was highly competitive for the performance terms when compared to the other systems reported in the literature for AD classification and the prediction of MCI-to-AD conversion.

## 6. Conclusion

In this paper, we proposed a novel and automatic feature-selection method, based on feature ranking and a GA, to select the optimal

features with maximum discriminative and minimum numbers of selected features for MCI conversion prediction and AD classification. In the proposed method, we used the Fisher criterion as part of the objective function in the GA in order to evaluate the feature subsets. The proposed feature-selection method not only selects the top discriminative features but also minimizes the dimensionality of the input vectors to low-dimensional space. The experimental results demonstrate that a combination of feature ranking and GA is a reliable technique for MCI conversion prediction and early detection of AD, especially with regard to high-dimensional data pattern recognition. In addition, the experimental results show that the GM atrophy pattern in AD subjects and HCs, as shown in VBM analysis, can be useful for extracting features from sMCI and pMCI samples. The performance of the proposed CAD system was measured on 458 subjects from the ADNI dataset using 10-fold cross validation. The experimental results show that the performance of the proposed approach can compete strongly with state-of-the-art techniques using MRI data, as reported in the literature.

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