Detecting amyloid- β positivity using regions of interest from structural MRIs

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Abstract

Background: Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common type of dementia. Amyloid- β (A β) positivity is the main diagnostic marker for AD. A β positron emission tomography and cerebrospinal fluid are widely used in the clinical diagnosis of AD. However, these methods only assess the concentrations of A β and the accessibility of these methods is thus relatively limited compared with structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI).

Methods: We investigated whether regions of interest (ROIs) in sMRIs can be used to predict $A\beta$ positivity for samples with normal cognition (NC), mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and dementia. We obtained 846 $A\beta$ negative ($A\beta$ -) and 865 $A\beta$ positive ($A\beta$ +) samples from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative database. To predict which samples are $A\beta$ +, we built five machine learning models using ROIs and apolipoprotein E (APOE) genotypes as features. To test the performance of the machine learning models, we constructed a new cohort containing 97 $A\beta$ - and 81 $A\beta$ + samples.

Results: The best performing machine learning model combining ROIs and APOE had an accuracy of 0.798, indicating that it can help predict $A\beta$ +. Furthermore, we searched ROIs that could aid our prediction and discovered that an average left entorhinal cortical region (L-ERC) thickness is an important feature. We also noted significant differences in L-ERC thickness between the $A\beta$ - and $A\beta$ + samples even in the same diagnosis of NC, MCI, and dementia.

Conclusions: Our findings indicate that ROIs from sMRIs along with APOE can be used as an initial screening tool in the early diagnosis of AD.

KEYWORDS

Alzheimer's disease, amyloid- β , sMRI, machine learning, left entorhinal cortical region

Running Title

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1. INTRODUCTION

Dementia, a progressive neurodegenerative brain disorder, is characterized by intellectual and cognitive decline [1], including Alzheimer's disease (AD), vascular dementia, and frontotemporal dementia. AD is the most common type of dementia and occurs in 60 to 80% of all patients with dementia [2]. The annual incidence of AD increases with age, showing 0.4%, 3.2%, and 7.6% for age 65 to 74, age 75 to 84, and age 85 and older, respectively [3].

It is challenging to identify the mechanisms underlying AD. However, the accumulation of amyloid- β (A β) plaques in the brain is suggested to be a major diagnostic marker of AD [^{4,5}]. There exist representative methods for measuring A β positivity: positron emission tomography (PET) with ¹⁸F-florbetapir [^{6,7}], ¹⁸Fflorbetaben (¹⁸F-FBB) [⁸], and ¹⁸F-flutemetamol [⁹] is one method, while quantification of A β plaque load by measuring A β concentrations in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is another [¹⁰]. Some studies have also predicted A β positivity using structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI) and apolipoprotein E (APOE) genotypes [^{11,12}]; these studies demonstrated that the predictive power for A β positivity in individuals with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) improved when sMRI and APOE genotypes were used together. Considering that sMRI has been performed with other diseases or injuries in clinics, the prediction of A β positivity using sMRI can be used as an initial screening tool for AD diagnosis.

In this study, to predict $A\beta$ positivity, we constructed machine learning models using sMRI from two cohorts comprising normal cognition (NC), MCI, and dementia samples. The first cohort was the Ewha Womans (EW) cohort comprising 178 patients from the Ewha Womans University Mokdong Hospital and Ewha Womans University Seoul Hospital. The second cohort was obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database [¹³]. However, because the number of samples in the EW cohort was much smaller than the number of regions of interest (ROIs) from sMRI, ADNI was used for constructing the training models and the EW cohort was tested in terms of the A β classification process. Moreover, two APOE single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (rs429358 and rs7412) were used together with sMRI to increase the performance. We then performed permutation feature importance [¹⁴] using the best performing machine learning model to determine, from the sMRIs, the ROIs that greatly influenced A β positivity prediction. Finally, we identified ROIs that showed significant differences in A β accumulation across all cohorts and diagnoses of NC, MCI, and AD.

2. MATERIALS

2.1. EW cohort

We newly constructed the EW cohort by collecting data on ¹⁸F-FBB PET scanning, T1weighted sMRI, and APOE genotypes of 178 subjects between June 2018 and July 2021 from the memory disorder clinic in Ewha Womans University Mokdong Hospital and Ewha Womans University Seoul Hospital. The acquisition methods of these data sets are described in Supplementary Section 1. The included subjects satisfied the following criteria: (1) aged between 50 and 90 years, (2) presence on the Alzheimer's continuum modified from the National Institute on Aging and Alzheimer's Association research framework in 2018 [¹⁵], (3) presence of a reliable informant, (4) the ability to read and write, and (5) provided written informed consent.

To distinguish the patient's diagnostic status, global cognition was assessed using the Korean-Mini-Mental Status Examination (K-MMSE)[¹⁶], global clinical dementia rating (CDR), sum of boxes of CDR, and a detailed neuropsychological battery of Seoul Neuropsychological Screening Battery-II [¹⁷]. To determine the A β positivity of the subjects, two expert PET readers visually judged the ¹⁸F-FBB PET PET data, with all clinical information masked [^{18,19}]. The tracer uptake in four cortical regions (lateral temporal cortex, frontal cortex, parietal cortex, and posterior cingulate cortex/precuneus) was evaluated using the regional cortical tracer uptake (RCTU) system (1 = no uptake, 2 = moderate uptake, 3 = pronounced uptake). Next, the global uptake in the brain was evaluated using the brain amyloid plaque load system (1 = RCTU score 1 in each of the four brain regions, 2 = RCTU score 3 in at least one of the four brain regions). Finally, patients with PET scans with a brain amyloid plaque load score of 2 and 3 were designated as A β positive (A β +), whereas the others were distinguished as A β negative (A β -).

2.2. ADNI cohort

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We downloaded data on sMRI, PET, and APOE genotypes from the ADNI website. We used the "UCSF Cross-Sectional FreeSurfer (4.3) (version 2015-11-2)" dataset, which contains brain structural information, and the "UC Berkeley-AV45 Analysis (version 2016-10-17)" dataset for PET, which contains A β information. The A β - and A β + cut off was 1.11 standard uptake value ratios normalized by the whole cerebellar reference region [²⁰]. We used the "ApoE-Results (version 2013-05-14)" dataset that contains information on the two SNPs rs429358 and rs7412.

The ADNI database comprises data from the same subject collected multiple times. Because we used the ADNI database for training a model, all the data from each subject were used. Finally, we used 1,711 samples with all information on sMRI, PET, and APOE in the ADNI cohort.

2.3. EW and ADNI + EW datasets for a predictive model

We constructed two datasets to build and evaluate a predictive model that classifies $A\beta$ + and $A\beta$ - samples. The first dataset was called the EW dataset; samples in this cohort were divided into 60%, 20%, and 20% as training, validation, and test sets, respectively, for five-fold cross-validation (CV). The second dataset was called the ADNI + EW dataset, where all samples in the ADNI cohort were used for the training set; the samples in the training and validation datasets of the EW dataset in each CV were used as the validation set; and samples in the test set of the EW dataset in each CV were used as the test set. Because the test sets in the EW and ADNI + EW datasets were same, it was possible to check whether the ADNI cohort is beneficial in improving the classification performance of the EW cohort.

2.4. sMRI preprocessing

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For the EW cohort, ROIs were extracted from sMRIs using the FreeSurfer (6.0) software package (http:// surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu). For both the ADNI and EW cohorts, a total of 311 ROIs, including cortical volume, mean cortical thickness, cortical thickness standard deviation, and subcortical volume and surface area, were used.

Brain volume and thickness decrease with age, and this can be a confounding factor biasing the neuroimaging analysis of AD [21,22]. Thus, the performance of a predictive model can be improved by eliminating this confounding factor [23]. Using generalized linear regression [24], we removed two confounders of age and cohort (ADNI or EW cohort) from sMRI data in the ADNI + EW dataset, and a confounder of age from sMRI data in ADNI and EW datasets (see Supplementary Section 2).

2.5. Mapping the APOE genotype to SNPs

Because APOE is involved in A β binding, clearance, and brain synaptic function, any alterations in the APOE genotype can cause A β plaque accumulation in the cerebral cortex [^{25,26}]. In particular, APOE ϵ 4 is an important biomarker for predicting A β [²⁷]. Therefore, we used the two SNPs rs429358 and rs7412; they represent six genotypes of APOE [²⁸].

3. METHODS

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3.1. Machine learning methods for the prediction of Aβ positivity

For the prediction of Aβ positivity, a total of five machine learning methods [logistic regression (LR), decision tree (DT), random forest (RF), support vector machine (SVM), and XGBoost (XGB) [²⁹] were constructed, and the performances of these methods were measured with five-fold CV using accuracy (ACC), fl-score (F1), area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC), and Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) [³⁰]. The set of hyperparameter values of the five machine learning models is described in Supplementary Section 3.

3.2. Feature selection methods for identifying ROIs related to Aβ positivity

After constructing the models for predicting $A\beta$ positivity, we assessed the ROIs of the sMRI that contribute to the classification of the $A\beta$ + sample. First, we selected a model with the highest test MCC among the five machine learning methods. Next, for each ROI, permutation-based feature importance was calculated by estimating decreases in performance by randomly shuffling the values of a feature [¹⁴]. For each fold of the five-fold CV, the permutation-based feature importance was calculated 100 times to reduce variance in prediction errors; then, the highest-scoring 20 of 311 ROIs were selected. Third, the ROIs that were ranked in the top 20 in at least two folds of the five-fold CV were selected.

We further refined the ROIs related to $A\beta$ positivity among the important ROIs from the classification of $A\beta$ + samples using machine learning. The t-test was performed to assess differences between the $A\beta$ + and $A\beta$ samples for each diagnosis of NC, MCI, and dementia for all of the samples in the EW, ADNI, and ADNI + EW datasets. ROIs with a p-value of < 0.1 were considered to be related to $A\beta$ accumulation.

4. RESULTS 4.1. Datasets

| Properties EW cohort ADNI cohort p-values of | 1 |
|---|---|
| | _ |
| Number of samples 97 81 - 846 865 | |
| NC/MCI/Dementia 37/46/14 5/46/30 <1e-05* 421/389/36 184/435/246 <1e-05* 0.001* | |
| APOE non- 86/11 32/49 <1e-05* 684/162 329/536 <1e-05* 0.079 | |
| ϵ 4/APOE ϵ 4 | |
| Male/Female 61/36 47/34 0.612 459/387 452/413 0.435 0.070 | |
| Age (years) 69.84±7.28 73.28±7.23 0.002* 73.01±7.67 74.84±7.11 <1e-05* 2e-05* | |
| Education (years) 10.63±4.61 10.12±4.81 0.476 16.54±2.52 15.95±2.77 <1e-05* <1e-05* | |
| MMSE ^b (score) 26.37±4.22 22.83±5.08 <1e-05* 28.51±2.08 26.22±3.80 <1e-05* <1e-05* | |
| CDRSB 1.91±2.70 3.51±2.71 1e-04* 0.79±1.22 2.35±2.58 <1e-05* <1e-05* | |

Table 1. Characteristics of the patients in the EW and ADNI cohorts.

Note: p-values for the characteristics based on diagnosis, APOE, and sex were calculated using the two-sample Chi-square test. For the MMSE, age, education, and CDRSB, the mean \pm standard deviation values have been shown, and the p-values were calculated using the two-sample t-test. *indicates that the p-value is < 0.05. In the ADNI cohort, five and thriteen samples did not have values for MMSE and CDRSB, respectively.

Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer's Disease; $A\beta$ -, $A\beta$ negative; $A\beta$ +, $A\beta$ positive; EW, Ewha Womans; ADNI, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative; NC, normal cognition; MCI, mild cognitive impairment; APOE, apolipoprotein E; MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination; CDRSB, Clinical Dementia Rating sum of boxes

^aThe t-test and two-sample Chi-square test were performed to assess differences between the EW and ADNI cohorts.

^bT he EW and ADNI cohorts were measured by Korean-MMSE and MMSE, respectively

The characteristics of the patients in the EW and ADNI cohorts are summarized in Table 1. Table 1 shows significant differences in age, education, MMSE, and CDRSB between the EW and ADNI cohorts. The adjustment for the differences in age and the cohort categories was performed using generalized linear regression in Section 2.4. As the number of NC samples in EW is relatively smaller than that in ADNI, MMSE and CDRSB values were different accordingly.

4.2. Aβ+ classification results

| Table 2. Prediction | of A β positivity | measured | as ACC, F1 | , AUC, a | and MCC in | the EW | and |
|---------------------|-------------------------|----------|------------|----------|------------|--------|-----|
| ADNI + DW datase | ets. | | | | | | |

| Eastumas | Models | EW dataset | | | ADNI + EW dat aset | | | | |
|---------------|---------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------|--------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| reatures | Widdels | ACC | F1 | AUC | MCC | ACC | F1 | AUC | MCC |
| SNP | DT | 0.759±0.036 | 0.705 ± 0.048 | 0.770±0.026 | 0.516 ± 0.070 | 0.775±0.016 | 0.719±0.027 | 0.755±0.037 | 0.560±0.042 |
| | DT | 0.545 ± 0.064 | $0.513{\pm}0.080$ | 0.542±0.053 | 0.095±0.135 | 0.714±0.077 | 0.688±0.108 | 0.732±0.098 | 0.436±0.155 |
| sMRI | LR | $0.680{\pm}0.065$ | $0.655 {\pm} 0.074$ | 0.697±0.062 | 0.364±0.128 | 0.702±0.064 | 0.693±0.095 | 0.804±0.064 | 0.423±0.144 |
| | RF | $0.641 {\pm} 0.087$ | $0.581{\pm}0.093$ | 0.708±0.050 | 0.272±0.174 | 0.674±0.030 | 0.684±0.051 | 0.781±0.056 | 0.384±0.070 |
| | SVM | $0.641 {\pm} 0.038$ | $0.520{\pm}0.091$ | 0.695±0.044 | 0.294±0.095 | 0.697±0.080 | 0.686±0.114 | 0.811±0.067 | 0.422±0.170 |
| | XGB | $0.663 {\pm} 0.056$ | $0.588{\pm}0.092$ | 0.665±0.021 | 0.312±0.119 | 0.696±0.097 | 0.708±0.101 | 0.798±0.081 | 0.436±0.186 |
| | Average | $0.634{\pm}0.079$ | 0.571 ± 0.101 | 0.661±0.078 | 0.268±0.161 | 0.697±0.074 | 0.692±0.097 | 0.785±0.080 | 0.420±0.152 |
| | DT | 0.664 ± 0.125 | $0.604{\pm}0.164$ | 0.659±0.145 | 0.323±0.259 | 0.787±0.026 | 0.770±0.032 | 0.822±0.027 | 0.576±0.049 |
| | LR | $0.686 {\pm} 0.068$ | $0.646 {\pm} 0.107$ | 0.758±0.078 | 0.375±0.134 | 0.792±0.057 | 0.772±0.067 | 0.847±0.036 | 0.586±0.110 |
| sMRI + SNP | RF | 0.674 ± 0.048 | 0.596 ± 0.060 | 0.753±0.042 | 0.340±0.098 | 0.775±0.035 | 0.770±0.050 | 0.843±0.057 | 0.566±0.077 |
| | SVM | $0.658 {\pm} 0.061$ | 0.581 ± 0.111 | 0.713±0.056 | 0.314±0.118 | 0.759±0.065 | 0.743±0.085 | 0.846±0.042 | 0.524±0.141 |
| | XGB | 0.725 ± 0.057 | $0.679 {\pm} 0.068$ | 0.753±0.044 | 0.449±0.110 | 0.798±0.041 | 0.786±0.060 | 0.857±0.060 | 0.613±0.086 |
| | Average | 0.681 ± 0.080 | 0.621±0.114 | 0.727±0.091 | 0.360±0.163 | 0.782±0.049 | 0.768±0.063 | 0.843±0.048 | 0.573±0.102 |

All values in the table have been expressed as mean ± standard deviation. Boldface represents the best performance of each dataset. Abbreviations: ACC, accuracy; F1, f1-score; AUC, area under the receiver operating characteristic curve; MCC, Matthews correlation coefficient; sMRI, structural magnetic resonance imaging; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; DT, decision tree; LR, logistic regression; RF, random forest; SVM, support vector machine; XGB, XGBoost.

Table 2 shows the performances of the classification of the $A\beta$ + samples as per five machine learning methods using the EW and ADNI + EW datasets. Compared with the EW dataset, the average performances of the five methods increased in the ADNI + EW dataset. When both sMRI and SNPs were used as features, on average, a 0.101, 0.147, 0.116, and 0.213 increase was noted in the ACC, F1, AUC, and MCC, respectively. Similarly, when sMRI was

used as a feature, the average performance of the ADNI + EW dataset was higher than that of the EW dataset. In Table 2, the performances of all 40 cases (five classification methods × four metrics) increased when the ADNI cohort was used for training in the ADNI + EW dataset. This performance improvement indicates that the EW cohort used in this study has a similar distribution to the widely used ADNI cohort and that a large number of training samples is helpful for a more accurate classification of $A\beta$ + samples.

When the cases using sMRI and two SNPs as multimodalities were compared with the cases using sMRI as a single modality, average increases of 0.047, 0.050, 0.066, and 0.092 were noted for ACC, F1, AUC, and MCC, respectively, in the EW dataset, and 0.085, 0.076, 0.058, and 0.153, respectively, in the ADNI + EW dataset. When both sMRI and SNP were used as features, all performance metrics were higher, except for F1 of LR, when using sMRI only.

In the EW dataset, the performances of all methods that used only sMRI or the multimodalities of SNP and sMRI were lower than those of the methods using SNPs. However, in the ADNI + EW dataset, although the models that used SNPs as features exhibited better performances than the models that used sMRI as features, the models that used both sMRI and SNPs as features outperformed the models that used single modalities (SNPs or sMRI). In addition, when sMRI was used as a single modality feature, the average performances of the five machine learning models were 0.697, 0.692, 0.785, and 0.420 for ACC, F1, AUC, and MCC, respectively, indicating that the A β samples could be distinguished using sMRI. Our results indicate that the SNPs rs429358 and rs7412 are more important than sMRI as biomarkers for judging A β positivity; however, if the number of datasets is sufficient, sMRI can be a major biomarker that can judge A β positivity; moreover, the classification of A β + samples can be improved by combining sMRI and SNPs.

Taken together, the models that used sMRI and SNPs as features in the ADNI + EW dataset outperformed all of the other models used for the classification of the A β + samples. In particular, the XGBoost method showed the highest performances of 0.798 ± 0.041, 0.786 ± 0.060, 0.857 ± 0.060, and 0.613 ± 0.086 in terms of ACC, F1, AUC, and MCC, respectively.

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For comparison, we measured the prediction performance of the ADNI dataset by dividing 60%, 20%, and 20% of the 1,033 non-duplicated subjects into the training set, validation set, and test set, respectively, in the five-fold CV. The performance of the five machine learning models using the ADNI dataset are described in Supplementary Table 1. The DT method had the highest ACC and MCC values of 0.733 and 0.469, respectively, but they were lower than that in the ADNI + EW dataset.

4.3. Classification of $A\beta$ + samples in the diagnosis groups using the ADNI + EW and ADNI datasets

Table 1 shows that the ratios of diagnosis between the $A\beta$ - and $A\beta$ + samples were significantly different (p < 1e-05). While the ratios of the $A\beta$ - and $A\beta$ + samples were similar for MCI, they were different for NC and dementia because AD is the most common type of dementia. Here, we additionally used the ADNI dataset because the number of samples in some diagnostic categories of the ADNI + EW dataset are small, such as five samples in $A\beta$ + NC. Therefore, we performed the following procedure to check whether the discriminate power of the $A\beta$ + samples in Table 2 was caused by the patient's diagnosis.

First, for each dataset, we selected a model that had the highest test MCC values among the five machine learning methods when both SNPs and sMRI were used. For the ADNI + EW and ADNI datasets, the selected model was XGBoost and DT, respectively. Second, the prediction of $A\beta$ positivity for all the test samples was obtained using the five-fold CV results of the selected models.

Table 3. Accuracy of the prediction of $A\beta$ positivity of each diagnosis of NC, MCI, and dementia for the ADNI + EW and ADNI datasets.

| Diagnagia | ADNI + EW | dataset | | ADNI dataset | | |
|----------------|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| Diagnosis | All | Αβ- | $A\beta +$ | All | Αβ- | $A\beta +$ |
| NC | 0.833 (35/42) | 0.865 (32/37) | 0.600 (3/5) | 0.714 (432/605) | 0.808 (340/421) | 0.500 (92/184) |
| MCI | 0.750 (69/92) | 0.696 (32/46) | 0.804 (37/46) | 0.718 (592/824) | 0.799 (311/389) | 0.646 (281/435) |
| Dementia | 0.864 (38/44) | 0.714 (10/14) | 0.933 (28/30) | 0.816 (230/282) | 0.861 (31/36) | 0.809 (199/246) |
| Abbreviations: | AB-, AB negative: Af | 3±. Aβpositive: EW | Ewha Womans: AI | DNL Alzheimer's Dis | ease Neuroimaging | Initiative: NC |

normal cognition; MCI, mild cognitive impairment.

Figure 1. Boxplots of the normalized left entorhinal cortical thickness average are shown for $A\beta$ + (in blue) and $A\beta$ - (in red) samples in the ADNI + EW dataset (A), the ADNI dataset (B), and the EW dataset (C). Abbreviations: $A\beta$ -, $A\beta$ negative; $A\beta$ +, $A\beta$ positive; NC, normal cognition; MCI, mild cognitive impairment.



Table 3 shows the ACC of the predictions of A β positivity for the three diagnosis categories in each dataset, where a threshold for positive or negative prediction is 0.5. In the ADNI + EW dataset, the ACC of the A β + NC sample was low as 60.0%, but the ACC of the A β - dementia sample was 71.4%, which was similar to that of the MCI samples. Supplementary Figure 1 shows that when the thresholds for predicting positive or negative A β were 0.4 and 0.6, the ACCs of each category were also similar with those using a threshold of 0.5. These results indicate that the prediction performance of the XGBoost method was not biased toward the patient's diagnosis.

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In the ADNI dataset, of 282 dementia samples, 36 were A β - and 86.1% were correctly predicted, which had a higher ACC than that of A β +. However, the ACC of the A β + NC sample was as low as 50.0%. Furthermore, when the threshold for deciding positive or negative A β was 0.4, ACCs of A β + NC and A β - NC samples were 0.625 and 0.682, respectively (Supplementary Figure 2). These results support that the prediction of A β positivity was not biased toward the patient's diagnosis.

In addition, based on the results in Table 3, we calculated post-test probabilities of a sample being $A\beta$ + when it was predicted to be $A\beta$ +. For the ADNI + EW dataset, a pre-test probability was 0.455, and a post-test probability increased to 0.747 with a positive likelihood ratio of 3.541. Similarly, for the ADNI dataset, the pretest probability was 0.506, and the post-test probability increased to 0.777 with the positive likelihood ratio of 3.411.

Figure 2. Visualization of the thickness of the left entorhinal cortical region in the EW cohort. "Mean" is the average of all the subjects in the $A\beta$ + or $A\beta$ - groups in a given diagnosis category, whereas "Value" is the actual value of the subject that is the closest to the mean. Abbreviations: $A\beta$ -, $A\beta$ negative; $A\beta$ +, $A\beta$ positive; NC, normal cognition; MCI, mild

cognitive impairment. Abbreviations: $A\beta$ -, $A\beta$ negative; $A\beta$ +, $A\beta$ positive; NC, normal cognition; MCI, mild cognitive impairment.



4.4. ROIs related to the classification of Aβ+ samples

To identify the ROIs of the sMRI contributing to the classification of $A\beta$ + samples in the prediction models, permutation-based feature importance was calculated for each ROI using the XGBoost method. Supplementary Table 2 shows ROIs that were selected as important features in the classification of $A\beta$ + samples. The measurement of permutation-based feature importance identified 12 important ROIs that ranked within the top 20 in at least 2 CVs of the five-fold CVs. Among the 12 ROIs, significant differences (p-value < 0.1) between the $A\beta$ - and $A\beta$ + samples were noted in most ROIs, regardless of cohorts. However, several ROIs did not show significant differences in the dementia category of the ADNI and ADNI + EW datasets and the NC category of the EW dataset.

Among the 12 important ROIs in the classification of A β positivity, five ROIs had significant differences (p-value < 0.1 in the t test) between the A β - and A β + samples in all diagnoses for at least one dataset (Table 4).

Among the five ROIs, four were related to A β only in a specific cohort or diagnosis. However, the left entorhinal cortical thickness average (L-ERC thickness) showed a significant difference (p-value < 0.1) between the A β and A β + samples in all diagnoses and all datasets.

| Table 4. | The five | ROIs | of sMRI | contributing | to the | classification | of $A\beta$ + | samples | with |
|-------------|-----------|------|---------|--------------|--------|----------------|---------------|---------|------|
| statistical | significa | nce. | | | | | | | |

| Datasets | ROIs | Measures | # of CVs ^a | All ^b | NC ^e | MCI ^d | Dementia ^e |
|------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| ADNI and EW cohorts | Left Entorhinal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 2e-04 | <1e-05 | 8e-04 |
| | Left Medial Orbitofrontal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.004 | <1e-05 | 0.848 |
| | Right Entorhinal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 9e-04 | <1e-05 | 0.025 |
| | Right Entorhinal | Cortical Volume | 2 | <1e-05 | 3e-04 | <1e-05 | 0.005 |
| | Right Pars Orbitalis | Cortical Volume | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.057 | 2e-05 | 0.056 |
| ADNI cohort | Left Entorhinal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.001 | <1e-05 | 0.033 |
| | Left Medial Orbitofrontal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.017 | <1e-05 | 0.273 |
| | Right Entorhinal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.004 | <1e-05 | 0.232 |
| | Right Entorhinal | Cortical Volume | 2 | <1e-05 | 4e-04 | <1e-05 | 0.090 |
| | Right Pars Orbitalis | Cortical Volume | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.109 | 3e-05 | 0.474 |
| EW cohort | Left Entorhinal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.052 | 5e-04 | 0.004 |

| Left Medial Orbitofrontal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.073 | 0.003 | 0.024 |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|---|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| Right Entorhinal | Cortical Thickness Average | 2 | <1e-05 | 0.065 | 0.005 | 0.053 |
| Right Entorhinal | Cortical Volume | 2 | 1e-05 | 0.389 | 0.040 | 0.024 |
| Right Pars Orbitalis | Cortical Volume | 2 | 0.002 | 0.061 | 0.225 | 0.017 |

Note: p-values > 0.1 are presented in bold

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Abbreviations: NC, normal cognition; MCI, mild cognitive impairment.

^aThe number of cross-validation (CV) folds, where the ROI is in the top 20 in the permutation feature importance calculation.

^b P -values of the t-test for the mean difference between all A β - and all A β + samples ^c P -values of the t-test for the mean difference between A β -NC and A β +NC samples.

^d P -values of the t-test for the mean difference between Aβ- MCI and Aβ+ MCI samples.

^e P -values of the t-test for the mean difference between A β - dementia and A β + dementia samples.

4.5. Cortical thickness of the left entorhinal region is related to the accumulation of $A\beta$ Figure 1 shows boxplots of normalized L-ERC thickness that was grouped based on $A\beta$ positivity, $A\beta$ negativity, and p-values of the t-test for the mean difference of normalized L-ERC thickness between the $A\beta$ - and $A\beta$ + samples in all combinations of diagnoses and datasets. The normalized L-ERC thickness was thinner for $A\beta$ + samples than $A\beta$ - samples, regardless of the datasets and the diagnosis of the sample. Figure 2 shows the left entorhinal region of sample subjects whose L-ERC thicknesses were closest to the mean of that for the samples of each diagnosis category and $A\beta$ negativity or $A\beta$ positivity in the EW cohort. Even if the diagnosis was the same, it could be seen that the L-ERC thickness of the $A\beta$ + samples was thinner than that of the $A\beta$ - samples.

4.6. Associations of left entorhinal cortical thickness with APOE genotypes and age We also conducted an experiment to see whether L-ERC was related to age and APOE genotypes with significant p-values between $A\beta$ + and $A\beta$ - in Table 1. Figure 3 shows boxplots of normalized L-ERC thickness grouped by APOE genotypes and p-values of a ttest showing the mean difference of normalized L-ERC thickness between samples with APOE $\epsilon 2/APOE \epsilon 3$ and those with APOE $\epsilon 4$ in the EW, ADNI, and ADNI + EW datasets. For all three datasets, the p-values were significant (p-value < 0.1), which confirmed that the L-ERC thickness is related not only to A β accumulation but also to APOE genotypes.

Figure 3. Boxplots of the normalized average of the left entorhinal cortical thickness are shown for samples with $\epsilon 4$ (in blue) and samples with $\epsilon 2$ and $\epsilon 3$ (in red) in the ADNI + EW, ADNI, and EW datasets.





2.0

1.5

50

ρ=<u>-0.361, p<1e-05</u>

60

70

AGE

80

Figure 4 shows a negative correlation between L-ERC thickness and age with statistical significance for the ADNI and EW datasets, indicating that L-ERC thickness decreases as age increases. However, as a result of linear regression, the coefficient of the L-ERC thickness was -0.022 with a p-value of 0.963, and the p-value was ranked 306th out of 311, indicating that it is relatively less affected by age than other ROIs are. The experiment is detailed in Supplementary Section 4 and coefficients and p-values of all ROIs are provided in Supplementary Table 3.

1.5

ρ=−0.288, *p*<1e−05

70

80

AGE

90

60

5. DISCUSSION

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Although amyloid PET can determine AD positivity, it is usually practiced in clinics only when considerable cognition impairment is noted due to its high cost. CSF based methods are considered to reflect the level of amyloid in brain; however, their invasiveness often prevents their implementation to elderly adults. However, sMRI is a relatively more accessible approach. Thus, we constructed machine learning models to classify AB positivity using ROIs from sMRI in the ADNI cohort. Because the ADNI cohort contains a large number of samples, when it was used as the training data the prediction accuracy of the EW cohort was improved to approximately 0.7 compared to when part of EW cohort was used as training data (Table 2). This indicates that the machine learning classification model can be used across cohorts from different continents. Note that the ADNI data was collected in the United States and Canada while the EW data was collected in South Korea. When APOE genotypes were combined with sMRI, the accuracy reached 0.798 with XGB. Moreover, the accuracies from several machine learning classifiers exhibited 0.782 on average, similar to the highest accuracy score, indicating that the classification performance does not depend on classifiers. However, we may expect more improved accuracies if more complex models, such as deep learning approaches, can be used when the larger number of samples with AD diagnosis, sMRI, and APOE genotypes are available.

We also checked whether the prediction accuracy depends on the diagnosis of samples (Table 3). Previous studies showed that sMRI combined with clinical variables can be used to predict $A\beta$ + for MCIs with accuracies of around 0.8 [11, 12]. In our study, the prediction accuracies in MCI were 0.750 and 0.718 for the EW cohort and ADNI cohort, respectively. Although we cannot directly compare these accuracies due to the differences in the cohorts, our study could confirm the applicability of sMRI to the prediction of $A\beta$ pathology in MCI. Among the dementia group, accuracies in samples with $A\beta$ + were high as 0.933 and 0.809 for the EW cohort and ADNI cohort, respectively. Encouragingly, accuracies in samples with A β - were 0.714 and 0.861 for the EW dataset and the ADNI dataset, respectively, showing that our approach can differentiate different types of dementia. In the NC samples, the accuracies were 0.833 and 0.714 for the EW cohort and the ADNI cohort, respectively, and A β - samples seem to be more correctly predicted than A β + samples. However, when we used different thresholds for predicting positive or negative samples, prediction accuracies of $A\beta$ + samples can be improved, although the overall accuracies decreased slightly (Supplementary Figures 1 and 2). This result illuminates the possibilities of early diagnosis of $A\beta$ + for NC.

Table 1 shows that the distributions of diagnosis categories, years of education, and MMSE and CDRSB values were different between the EW and ADNI cohorts. In our prediction model, we did not take these feature values into account because we focused on the relationship between the brain structural changes and A β positivity rather than the cognitive levels. However, if A β positivity and cognitive levels are predicted together, these features need to be considered as well.

Our study showed that L-ERC thickness is an important ROI for the classification of $A\beta$ + samples in the XGBoost method and that it significantly differed depending on the accumulation of $A\beta$ even in the same diagnosis categories. ERC is known to play an essential role in memory formation and is one of the first affected areas in AD because of its connection to the hippocampus and neocortex [^{31,32}], and ERC thickness is associated with MMSE and AD assessment scale–cognitive [³³]. Previous studies have even shown that ERC is a more important biomarker than the hippocampus in detecting a conversion from non-dementia in patients to AD or from MCI to AD [³⁴⁻³⁶]. In addition, ERC thickness is an important ROI in distinguishing AD and healthy controls [³⁷].

For the relationship between cortical thickness and A β positivity, an early study reported that there was no significant difference between A β + (nine samples) and A β - (35 samples) in medial temporal lobe cortex thickness [³⁸]. However, this observation might be due to the small number of samples in the study. In our study, we observed in the NC diagnosis category of the EW cohort (Table 4) that the five ROIs showed p-values > 0.05 and L-ERC thickness had the p-value of 0.052, where the number of NC subjects was small with five A β + and 37 A β - samples. When the ADNI cohort with the larger number of samples was used, four ROIs including ERC showed p-values < 0.05 even in the NC category. In addition, several studies showed that ERC thickness declined in A β + samples [^{39,40}]. A recent study has shown that APOE4 expression affects the regulation of lipid metabolism in the ERC, implying that APOE4 increases the susceptibility of neurons in the

metabolism in the ERC, implying that APOE4 increases the susceptibility of neurons in the ERC to AD pathogenesis [⁴¹]. This previous study supports our results that A β classification performance was improved when APOE and sMRI were combined, and that L-ERC thickness and APOE genotype were significantly related to one another.

In addition to L-ERC thickness, Table 4 shows a significant difference between $A\beta$ + and $A\beta$ - samples in medial orbitofrontal cortex (mOFC) thickness, except for that of dementia in the ADNI cohort. Several studies suggested that mOFC is associated with $A\beta$ accumulation in an early stage of AD [^{42,43}]. By analyzing the ADNI cohort, Palmqvist et al. [⁴²] showed that $A\beta$ accumulation starts in the core regions of the default mode network, including mOFC. Our results also support that mOFC is an important region for distinguishing $A\beta$ positivity in our EW cohort.

As progression of MCI to AD is clinically important, several studies have been conducted to predict the conversion of MCI to AD using sMRI [44,45]. Most studies used the ADNI cohort as it contains longitudinal data. Thus, by following up with subjects in the EW cohort, we will further investigate longitudinal changes on the relationship between ROIs in brain and A β accumulation and develop computational models to predict the conversion of MCI to AD as future work.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

HL and JJ initiated and supervised the project. JJ, HP, JY, and JH collected data. HL and JH developed the algorithm and analyzed the results. HL, JJ, HP, and JH wrote the manuscript. JH performed computational experiments

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest associated with this work.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data on the Ewha Womans cohort are available upon request.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

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