



The impact of Alzheimer's disease susceptibility loci on lateral ventricular surface morphology in older adults

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Abstract

The enlargement of ventricular volume is a general trend in the elderly, especially in patients with Alzheimer's disease (AD). Multiple susceptibility loci have been reported to have an increased risk for AD and the morphology of brain structures are affected by the variations in the risk loci. Therefore, we hypothesized that genes contributed significantly to the ventricular surface, and the changes of ventricular surface were associated with the impairment of cognitive functions. After the quality controls (QC) and genotyping, a lateral ventricular segmentation method was employed to obtain the surface features of lateral ventricle. We evaluated the influence of 18 selected AD susceptibility loci on both volume and surface morphology across 410 subjects from Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI). Correlations were conducted between radial distance (RD) and Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) subscales. Only the C allele at the rs744373 loci in *BIN1* gene significantly accelerated the atrophy of lateral ventricle, including the anterior horn, body, and temporal horn of left lateral ventricle. No significant effect on lateral ventricle was found at other loci. Our results revealed that most regions of the bilateral ventricular surface were significantly negatively correlated with cognitive scores, particularly in delayed recall. Besides, small areas of surface were negatively correlated with language, orientation, and visuospatial scores. Together, our results indicated that the genetic variation affected the localized areas of lateral ventricular surface, and supported that lateral ventricle was an important brain structure associated with cognition in the elderly.

Keywords Lateral ventricle · Genetic · Morphology · Alzheimer's disease · sMRI

Data used in preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu). As such, the investigators within the ADNI contributed to the design and implementation of ADNI and/or provided data but did not participate in analysis or writing of this report. A complete listing of ADNI investigators can be found at: http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/how_to_apply/ADNI_Acknowledgement_List.pdf.

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Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common neurodegenerative disease in elderly, which is characterized by the progressive decline of memory and cognition (Association 2019). With the accelerated process of the ageing population, there has been a rapid increase in the number of AD patients. The estimated number of AD patients would grow to 130 million by 2050 (Shah et al. 2016). Structural

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magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has been applied in cognitive neuroscience as a stabilization tool, which has an ability to describe the high-resolution neuroanatomical information across the brain. Morphological changes of the brain in AD patients are well-recognized, including the hippocampus (Apostolova et al. 2012), amygdala (Poulin et al. 2011), ventricle (Apostolova et al. 2012), and the cortex (Frisoni et al. 2007). Both volume and surface have persistent changes and are considered as reliable biomarkers for predicting the incipient AD in mild cognitive impairment (MCI) patients (Guo et al. 2020; Ewers et al. 2012).

Lateral ventricle is a C-shaped cavity locates in the deep brain (Rhoton 2002) and can be divided into four subregions: anterior horn, body, occipital horn, and temporal horn (Barami et al. 2009). Current theory suggests that cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) A β -42, total tau, and phosphor-tau181 are the main available AD biomarkers for clinical diagnosis (Veitinger et al. 2014), and CSF is secreted in the ventricle (Alimajstorovic et al. 2020). The enlargement of lateral ventricular volume is a common pathological change in patients with AD, which is caused by the shrinkage of brain parenchymal and abnormal build-up of CSF (Apostolova et al. 2012; Bae et al. 2019). Specifically, the annual rate of expansion in ventricular volume was about 9% in AD patients, while 2% in healthy elderly (de Leon et al. 1989). The volume-based approach can reflect the overall change and the surface-based method can describe deformation detail of surface (Gutman et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2009; Shi et al. 2015). The surface-based method could facilitate further studies on the interactions between lateral ventricle and surrounding structures.

Genetic studies have identified that many genes were associated with the AD. Large scale genome-wide associated studies (GWAS) have revealed several AD genetic risk factors, such as *ApoE*, *CLU*, *CRI*, *CD33*, *BINI*, *PICALM*, *CD2AP*, *NYAPI*, and others (Karch and Goate 2015; Lambert et al. 2013; Bertram et al. 2008; Beecham et al. 2009; Kunkle et al. 2019). Some susceptibility loci (*ApoE*, rs983392 within *MS4A6A*, rs11218343 within *SOLRI*, rs6733839 within *BINI*, etc.) were found to be associated with MRI measures (cortical thickness, cortical surface area, and cortical volumes, subcortical structure volume, etc.) (Li et al. 2017; Chauhan et al. 2015; van der Meer et al. 2020; Grasby et al. 2020; Hofer et al. 2020) and brain metabolism (Stage et al. 2016), while the relationship between surface morphological changes and AD risk allele was relatively less to be reported. Some researches demonstrated that greater deformation of the hippocampal morphometry was observed when comparing *ApoE* E4 heterozygotes and homozygotes with non-carriers in longitudinal datasets (Crivello et al. 2010), especially the left hippocampus (Li et al. 2016). Previous studies have investigated the effects of *ApoE* E4 and *CLU* (rs11136000 and rs1532278) loci on ventricular

expansion (Roussotte et al. 2014a, b). Their results indicated that these risk alleles were related to the faster ventricular expand bilaterally, and the effect of genes on the lateral ventricular surface was regionalized.

The lateral ventricle is one of the most affected anatomical structures in the development of AD, but most of the previous studies focused on the hippocampus, amygdala, and parietal lobe, etc. We speculated that risk genes would strongly influence the ventricular morphology and accelerate the development of AD. The lateral ventricle as a cavity has no responsible cognitive function, but it is highly correlated with changes in surrounding structures, such as hippocampus, thalamus, etc. Therefore, the relationship between lateral ventricular surface and cognitive function indirectly reflects the role of adjacent structures in different cognitive functions. In this study, volume-based analysis was used to detect the overall change of ventricular morphology, and the ventricular morphometry analysis system (VMAS) was used to assess the deformation detail of ventricular surface. Besides, we calculated the correlations between morphological features of lateral ventricular surface and Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA) subscales. To sum up, the present study had two main purposes. First, to evaluate the presence of the risk allele that significantly affected the lateral ventricular morphology in 18 selected susceptibility loci in the elderly. Second, the relationship between adjacent structures of lateral ventricles and different cognitive functions was investigated.

Experimental procedures

Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative

Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu). The ADNI was launched in 2003 as a public-private partnership, led by Principal Investigator Michael W. Weiner, MD. The primary goal of ADNI has been to test whether serial magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), positron emission tomography (PET), other biological markers, and clinical and neuropsychological assessment can be combined to measure the progression of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and early Alzheimer's disease (AD). For up-to-date information, see www.adni-info.org.

The ADNI study was approved by the local Institutional Review Board, and all participants signed the informed consent prior to the collection of data. The current study was a cross-sectional design. After the procedure of genotyping, preprocessing, and segmentation, the scan which had technical failure during segmentation were excluded. We finally identified 410 participants

in this research, including 239 MCI (131 female, 108 male, 70.73 ± 7.11 years), 152 NC (92 female, 60 male, 74.08 ± 7.15 years), and 19 AD (13 female, 6 male, 74.65 ± 7.25 years). The chi-squared test showed no significant difference on gender ($p = 0.332$) between the three clinical stages. All subjects were asked to complete the MoCA. Inclusion and clinical diagnosis criteria for ADNI have been described in the ADNI manual (www.adni-info.org). The Mini-Mental State Exam (MMSE) score of AD subjects were measured in 20–26 (inclusive), Clinical Dementia Rating Scale (CDR) scores of 0.5 or 1.0, and all subjects meet National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Diseases and Stroke/Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association (NINCDS/ADRDA) criteria for probable AD. MCI subjects had MMSE scores between 24 and 30 (inclusive), a memory complaint, have objective memory loss measured by education adjusted scores on Wechsler Memory Scale Logical Memory II, a CDR of 0.5, the absence of significant levels of impairment in other cognitive domains, essentially preserved activities of daily living, and the absence of dementia. NC subjects had MMSE scores between 24 and 30 (inclusive), a CDR of 0, non-depressed, non-MCI, and nondemented.

Genotyping and SNP selection

Single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotypes of subjects were generated by BeadStudio 3.2 software (Illumina) and have been uploaded to the ADNI website (Saykin et al. 2010). PLINK 1.9 (<http://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/1.9/>) was used to quality controls (QC) and extract the information of selected SNP except *ApoE* (Purcell et al. 2007), since *ApoE* genotyping of participants had been done at the screening visit and uploaded to the website by ADNI, as described in previous publication (Saykin et al. 2010). The procedure of QC included the following criteria: Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) > 0.001 , minor allele frequencies (MAF) > 0.05 , and minimum call rates > 0.95 .

We ultimately selected 18 genetic loci which have been previously reported as risk factors for Alzheimer's Disease (AD), including *ApoE*, *BINI*-rs744373, *CLU*-rs7012010, *PICALM*-rs3851179, *MS4A6A*-rs920573, *CR1*-rs3818361, *CR1*-rs6691117, *HLA-DRB1*-rs9271246, *EPHA1*-rs11771145, *EPHA1*-rs11767557, *PTK2B*-rs1879189, *ABCA7*-rs3764650, *CD2AP*-rs9296562, *CD33*-rs3865444, *CD33*-rs3826656, *SORL1*-rs2070045, *NYAPI*-rs12539172, *MEF2C*-rs190982 (Wang et al. 2017; Karch and Goate 2015; Bertram et al. 2008; Beecham et al. 2009; Ma et al. 2014b; Liu et al. 2017; Kunkle et al. 2019). Details of the gene information are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Information of the selected SNP

Gene	SNP	Chr.	Position	Major/minor alleles	MAF
<i>ApoE</i>	$\epsilon 4$				
<i>BINI</i>	rs744373	2	127894615	C/T	0.32
<i>CLU</i>	rs7012010	8	27448729	T/C	0.30
<i>PICALM</i>	rs3851179	11	85868640	G/A	0.35
<i>MS4A6A</i>	rs920573	11	59924959	G/A	0.38
<i>CR1</i>	rs3818361	1	207784968	C/T	0.20
	rs6691117	1	207782931	A/G	0.24
<i>HLA-DRB1</i>	rs9271246	6	32580084	G/A	0.24
<i>EPHA1</i>	rs11771145	7	143110762	G/A	0.37
	rs11767557	7	143109139	T/C	0.19
<i>PTK2B</i>	rs1879189	8	27198884	A/G	0.15
<i>ABCA7</i>	rs3764650	19	1046520	T/G	0.09
<i>CD2AP</i>	rs9296562	6	47490193	A/G	0.41
<i>CD33</i>	rs3865444	19	51727962	G/T	0.27
	rs3826656	19	51726613	A/G	0.25
<i>SORL1</i>	rs2070045	11	121448090	T/G	0.23
<i>NYAPI</i>	rs12539172	7	100091795	C/T	0.26
<i>MEF2C</i>	rs190982	5	88223420	A/G	0.36

SNP single-nucleotide polymorphism; Chr. chromosome; MAF minor allele frequencies

MRI acquisition

The detail of MRI acquisition parameters has been described elsewhere (Jack et al. 2008). In brief, high-resolution 3D T1 weighted MRI scans were acquired at multi-site, using 1.5 T MRI scanners (repetition time/echo time = 2400/1000 ms, flip angle = 8° , acquisition matrix size = $256 \times 256 \times 166$, and reconstructed voxel resolution = $0.94 \times 0.94 \times 1.2 \text{ mm}^3$). For now, MRI is still the most common and reliable method for detecting brain abnormalities. Multi-site has minimal impact on morphological analysis (Jovicich et al. 2013). ADNI has done a lot to enhance standardization across sites and platforms of images acquired.

Segmentation of the lateral ventricles

First, the T1-weighted structural MRI of each subject were first linearly registered to the MNI152 space using FSL FLIRT (Smith et al. 2004), since FSL FLIRT has a much lower registration error rate on multi-site data and not affected by the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) (Dadar et al. 2018). Second, all registered images were segmented into gray matter (GM), white matter (WM), and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) using the CAT12 (<http://www.neuro.uni-jena.de/cat/>) within SPM12. Third, we applied the geodesic shooting algorithm (Ashburner and Friston 2011) to obtain a group-wise CSF template, which allowed us to extract the

group-wise ventricular template based on the CSF template using Automatic Lateral Ventricle delineation (ALVIN) binary mask (Kempton et al. 2011). Fourth, we visually inspected the ventricular boundaries of binary ventricular template, and wrapped the ventricular template back to the individual space using the deformation matrices from the estimation of group-wise CSF template. Fifth, ventricular surface meshes were reconstructed according to the shape of each individual ventricular volumetric template. Then, the ventricular structures of each subject were segmented from the MRI data. All the segmentation steps after registration were completed in SPM, and the method was described in more comprehensive detail in previous studies (Dong et al. 2020; Shi et al. 2015). In addition, total intracranial volume (TIV) and bilateral lateral ventricular volumes were obtained from MRI images via Freesurfer software (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>), which have been confirmed that has higher accuracy, good reproducibility, and sensitivity for automatically segmenting the volume of ventricle, especially in patients with AD (Kempton et al. 2011; Mayer et al. 2016).

Group-wise ventricular surface morphometry analysis

To better explore the morphological changes of ventricular surface, we extracted several vertex-wise characteristics consisting of radial distance (RD), tensor-based morphometry (TBM), multivariate TBM (mTBM), and RDMTBM (Zhang et al. 2016). The RD was defined as the shortest distance from each vertex to the medial axis (Thompson et al. 2004; Pizer et al. 1999), reflecting the morphological changes in thickness. Suppose $\varphi: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$ is a map from face S_1 to S_2 . The derivative map $d\varphi$ is approximated by the linear map from one face $[v_1, v_2, v_3]$ to another face $[w_1, w_2, w_3]$. Then, the Jacobian matrix J is discrete derivative map $d\varphi$ from a face on anatomical surface to a face on the parameter domain, which can be computed as (Wang et al. 2009; Yao et al. 2020):

$$J = [w_3 - w_1, w_2 - w_1] [v_3 - v_1, v_2 - v_1]^{-1}$$

The deformation tensor S is defined as $(J^T J)^{1/2}$. Instead of analyzing shape change based on the eigenvalues of the deformation tensor, MTBM considered “Log-Euclidean metrics” of deformation tensor S (Arsigny et al. 2006) so that the transformed values form a vector space. MTBM can be easily computed using the standard formulae for Euclidean spaces, and has increased the statistical power (Shi et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2010).

TBM was defined as $\sqrt{\det J}$, which reflected the changes in local surface area. MTBM was expressed as $\log \sqrt{JJ^T}$ and used to supplement the information of TBM. In addition,

RDMTBM was a synthesis of RD and MTBM information, but more details of this feature still need to be further explored.

The human *ApoE* gene has three polymorphic alleles, named E2, E4, and E4. The E4 of *ApoE* is the major genetic risk factor for AD (Lyall et al. 2016; O'Donoghue et al. 2018), conversely, the E2 of *ApoE* has a protective effect against AD (Suri et al. 2013; Corder et al. 1994). After removing subjects carrying the *ApoE* E2E4 genotype, all subjects were divided into *ApoE* E4 carriers (E3E4, E4E4) and non-carriers (E2E3, E3E3). For the other genetic loci in this study, we assumed that minor allele frequencies from each SNP investigated were high-risk alleles. Due to the scarcity of homozygous for the minor allele, heterozygous and homozygous minor allele genotypes were combined as risk-allele carriers. We performed chi-squared test and two-sample t test on the risk-allele carriers and non-carriers based on each AD loci to analyze sex and age differences between the groups (As shown in eTable 1). In addition, two-sample t test was also used to analyze whether there is a significant difference in TIV between two groups. The vertex-based morphological differences between the two groups were compared by Hotelling's T^2 test and permutation test was used to correct the multiple comparisons (Hotelling 1992). First, we computed the Mahalanobis distance with true labels to quantify the difference between two groups on this vertex. Then, the surfaces were partitioned randomly into two groups with the same number of subjects in the true group and the Mahalanobis distance on each surface vertex was re-computed. This process was repeated for 10,000 times so that each vertex had 10,000 permutation values. The probability on each vertex was defined as ratio of the number of permutation values which were greater than the true group difference value. With these vertex-based probabilities (p values), we can generate a p -map with significant morphological changes (uncorrected, Fig. 2). The features will be compared with the features derived from the random groupings, thus, we can obtain a ratio that describes the fraction of the time an effect of similar or greater magnitude to the real effect occurs in the random assignments. This ratio reflects the global significance (corrected) of the p -map. Corrected P value < 0.05 was considered as significant.

In addition, to ensure an accurate reflection of the atrophy and expansion of each vertex, we used the following formula:

$$R^k = \frac{\sum_i^{N_1} F_{1i}^k}{N_1} - \frac{\sum_j^{N_2} F_{2j}^k}{N_2},$$

where F_{1i}^k and F_{2j}^k represent the feature of the i -th subject in group 1 and j -th in group 2, such as RD, TBM, MTBM or RDMTBM. N_1 and N_2 are the number of group 1 and group 2, while k represents the k -th vertex on the surface. $R^k > 0$ indicates that the k -th vertex on the ventricular surfaces of

risk-allele carriers was expanding compared to the risk-allele non-carriers, while $R^k < 0$ indicates atrophy. There were 21,760 and 23,584 vertexes for the left and right lateral ventricles, respectively.

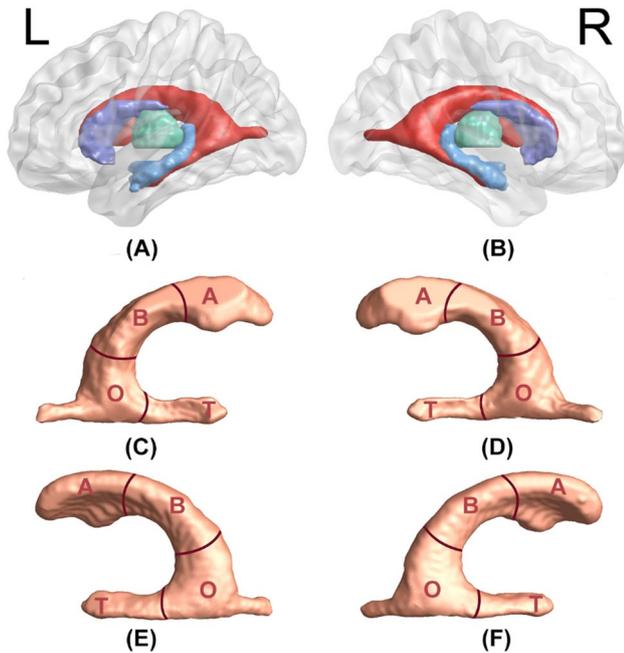


Fig. 1 The surrounding structure and subregions of lateral ventricle. **A, B** The subcortical structure around the lateral ventricle, including hippocampus (blue), thalamus (green), and caudate nucleus (purple). **C–F** The four subregions of lateral ventricle. *A* anterior horn, *B* body, *O* occipital horn, *T* temporal horn, *L* left, *R* right

Correlation analysis between morphological features and MoCA subscales

MoCA is a widely used screening tool to detect the cognitive impairment of clinical populations, including visuospatial, orientation, language, attention, abstraction, naming, and delayed recall (Folstein et al. 1975). To evaluate the functions of different subregions of lateral ventricle, Pearson correlation analyses were performed for the RD of each vertex and the sub-scores of all participants, and only significant correlations (false discovery rate, $FDR < 0.05$) were considered. The correlation analysis for each scale was done separately. The subregions and surrounding structure of lateral ventricle are shown in Fig. 1.

Results

Characteristics of subjects

The demographic characteristics of all subjects are shown in Table 2. The groupings based on each susceptibility loci were all gender- and age-matched ($p > 0.05$). There was also no significant difference between groups in TIV.

Impact of risk-allele on ventricular volume

A significantly decreased ventricular volume was found only in the *C* allele carriers at *BIN1* rs744373 loci when compared with non-carriers, especially left ventricle. The same trends (not significant) were obtained in the AD, MCI, and NC group, respectively (Table 3). For other loci, ventricular

Table 2 Demographic information of participants

	NC ($n = 152$)	MCI ($n = 239$)	AD ($n = 19$)	Total ($n = 410$)
Gender (F/M)	92/60	131/108	13/6	236/174
Age	74.08 ± 7.15	70.73 ± 7.11	74.65 ± 7.253	72.15 ± 7.15
LVV	$1.50 \times 10^4 \pm 7.75 \times 10^3$	$1.69 \times 10^4 \pm 1.02 \times 10^4$	$2.22 \times 10^4 \pm 9.25 \times 10^3$	$1.62 \times 10^4 \pm 9.45 \times 10^3$
RVV	$1.40 \times 10^4 \pm 6.79 \times 10^3$	$1.53 \times 10^4 \pm 9.23 \times 10^3$	$2.05 \times 10^4 \pm 7.63 \times 10^3$	$1.51 \times 10^4 \pm 8.42 \times 10^3$
TIV	$1.47 \times 10^6 \pm 1.47 \times 10^5$	$1.49 \times 10^6 \pm 1.98 \times 10^5$	$1.43 \times 10^6 \pm 1.58 \times 10^5$	$1.48 \times 10^6 \pm 1.79 \times 10^5$
MoCA	24.42 ± 4.32	21.94 ± 4.31	16.05 ± 4.41	22.59 ± 4.30
Visuospatial	4.17 ± 0.92	3.62 ± 1.37	2.21 ± 1.40	3.76 ± 1.30
Naming	2.82 ± 0.47	2.69 ± 0.68	2.31 ± 0.89	2.72 ± 0.63
Attention	4.88 ± 0.89	4.28 ± 1.29	3.15 ± 1.34	4.45 ± 1.22
Language	2.35 ± 0.80	2.20 ± 0.90	1.00 ± 1.15	2.20 ± 0.92
Abstraction	1.79 ± 0.46	1.62 ± 0.64	0.84 ± 0.90	1.64 ± 0.62
Delayed recall	1.84 ± 1.78	1.22 ± 1.64	0.16 ± 0.69	1.40 ± 1.71
Orientation	5.71 ± 0.83	5.00 ± 1.66	2.53 ± 1.84	5.15 ± 1.56

\pm : standard deviation

F female; *M* male; *NC* normal controls; *MCI* mild cognitive impairment; *AD* Alzheimer's disease; *MoCA* Montreal Cognitive Assessment; *LVV* left lateral ventricular volume; *RVV* right lateral ventricular volume; *TIV* total intracranial volume

Table 3 Differences of ventricular volume at the *BIN1* rs744373 loci

BIN1	TT (<i>n</i> = 182)	CT + CC (<i>n</i> = 197)	<i>P</i> value
Age	72.53 ± 7.38	72.11 ± 6.9300	0.57
Gender (F/M)	105/77	112/85	0.87
LVV (Total)	1.77 × 10 ⁴ ± 1.06 × 10 ⁴	1.55 × 10 ⁴ ± 8.38 × 10 ³	0.02
RVV (Total)	1.60 × 10 ⁴ ± 9.00 × 10 ³	1.43 × 10 ⁴ ± 7.85 × 10 ³	0.04
LVV (AD)	2.31 × 10 ⁴ ± 9.76 × 10 ⁴	2.01 × 10 ⁴ ± 7.02 × 10 ³	0.49
RVV (AD)	2.07 × 10 ⁴ ± 7.53 × 10 ³	1.93 × 10 ⁴ ± 5.63 × 10 ³	0.68
LVV (MCI)	1.83 × 10 ⁴ ± 1.12 × 10 ⁴	1.62 × 10 ⁴ ± 9.49 × 10 ³	0.13
RVV (MCI)	1.63 × 10 ⁴ ± 1.00 × 10 ⁴	1.48 × 10 ⁴ ± 8.66 × 10 ³	0.24
LVV (NC)	1.61 × 10 ⁴ ± 9.20 × 10 ³	1.40 × 10 ⁴ ± 6.41 × 10 ³	0.09
RVV (NC)	1.50 × 10 ⁴ ± 7.06 × 10 ³	1.30 × 10 ⁴ ± 6.52 × 10 ³	0.07
TIV	1.49 × 10 ⁶ ± 1.96 × 10 ⁵	1.48 × 10 ⁶ ± 1.62 × 10 ⁵	0.51

Bold values indicate significant difference between the two groups (*p* value < 0.05)

±: standard deviation

F female; M male; LVV left lateral ventricular volume; RVV right lateral ventricular volume; TIV total intracranial volume

volume had a decreasing or increasing trend, but did not reach the significant level (Fig. 2).

Ventricular morphometric differences between risk-allele carriers and non-carriers

To achieve a better understanding of the morphological changes of lateral ventricle, we analyzed the surface differences using the vertex-wise characteristics. The *p*-map of *BIN1* rs744373 genotype on ventricular surface is shown in Fig. 3, which reflected the areas of significant abnormality caused by risk allele. Consistent with the results of volume, ventricular surface subregions of C allele carriers showed significant atrophy. As for the RD and TBM, the atrophy was mainly in the dorsolateral anterior horn and body of left lateral ventricle, with a few areas in occipital horn, and the

difference in TBM was greater than RD (Fig. 3A,B). Other than that, the abnormal changes of mTBM/RDmTBM were concentrated on the temporal horn, dorsolateral of anterior horn, and a few areas in occipital horn (Fig. 3C, D).

Although trends of morphological changes are observed in other genetic loci, they did not pass the correction (overall *p* value > 0.05), including *CD33* rs3865444, *CLU* rs7012010, *PICALM* rs3851179, *CD2AP* rs9296562, and *PTK2B* rs1879189. The results of this part of the study were not described here because they did not reach statistical significance.

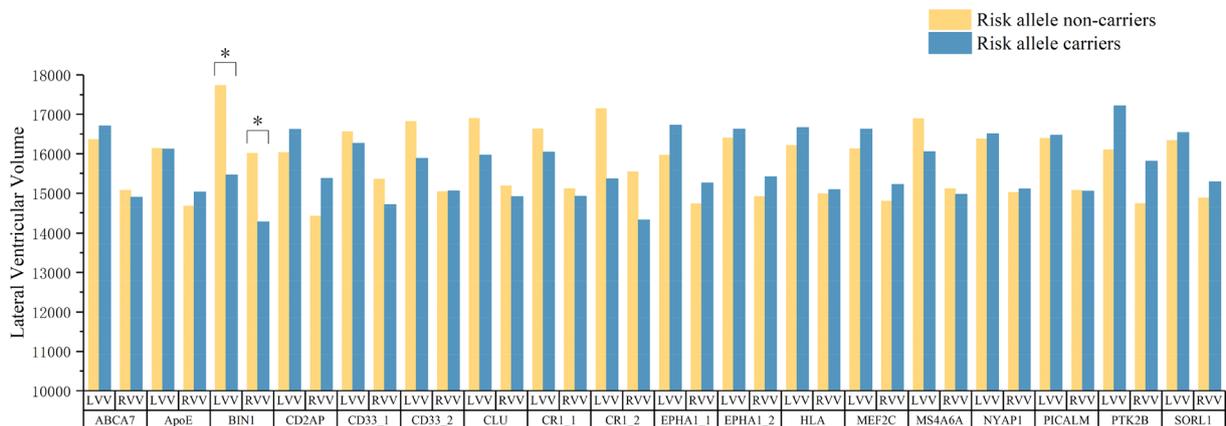
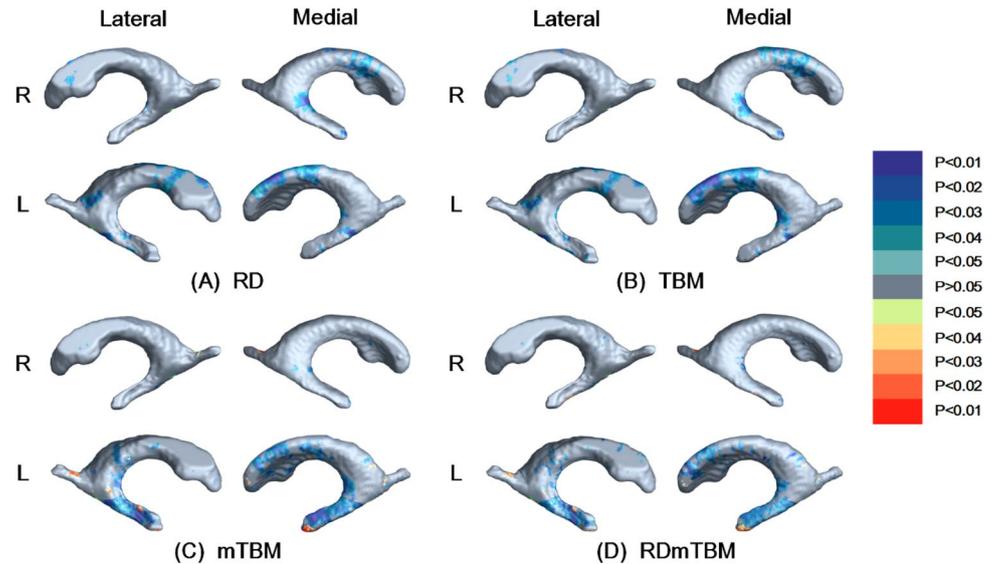


Fig. 2 The mean lateral ventricular volume of each group. RVV right lateral ventricular volume; LVV left lateral ventricular volume; *CD33_1*: *CD33*(rs3865444); *CD33_2*: *CD33*(rs11771145);

CRI_1: *CRI*(rs3818361); *CRI_2*: *CRI*(rs6691117); *EPHA1_1*: *EPHA1*(rs11771145); *EPHA1_2*: *EPHA1*(rs11767557). *Means significant difference between risk-allele carriers and non-carriers

Fig. 3 P-map of *BINI* rs744373 genotype on lateral ventricular surface. The overall corrected p values of right ventricular were all > 0.05 , and the overall corrected p values of RD, TBM, mTBM, and RDmTBM of left ventricular were 0.0546, 0.0283, 0.0087, and 0.0113, indicating significant changes in left lateral ventricle. The warm and cool color each represents the expansion (risk-allele carriers $>$ risk-allele non-carriers) and atrophy (risk-allele carriers $<$ risk-allele non-carriers) of ventricular surfaces. *L* left; *R* right



Correlation between surface features of lateral ventricular subregions and cognitive subscales

The higher MoCA scores, the higher cognitive functional performance. After the correlation analysis, significant negative correlation between delayed recall score and RD was observed in most areas of bilateral ventricular surface (Fig. 4A). Results showed that language scores were significantly negative correlated with RD in the right temporal horn, as well as visuospatial scores in trigone area of the left lateral ventricle (Fig. 4B, D). Apart from this, A significant negative correlation was found between the orientation scores and morphological feature of body, occipital horn,

and temporal horn of left lateral ventricle (Fig. 4C). For the total score of MoCA, significant negative correlations were found in body, occipital horn, and temporal horn of bilateral lateral ventricle (Fig. 4E). RD showed no significantly correlated with attention, abstraction, and naming scores.

Discussion

We evaluated the association between 18 AD susceptibility loci and surface morphology of the lateral ventricle. The surrounding parenchymal areas that can be involved in cognition functions were firstly reported in our research. Our

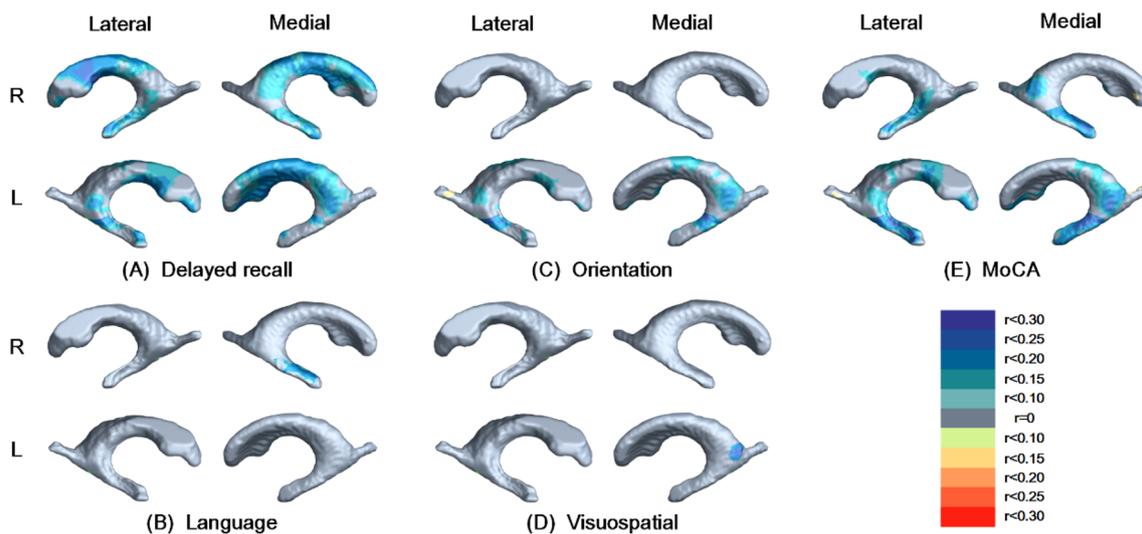


Fig. 4 Correlations between ventricular surface morphological feature and MoCA, subscales, respectively (FDR < 0.05). Warm colors represent positive correlations and cool colors represent negative correlations. *MoCA* Montreal Cognitive Assessment; *L* left; *R* right

results showed that only the lateral ventricular morphology of C allele carriers at *BINI* rs744373 loci were significantly different from non-carriers, as well as the cognitive scales were significantly associated with ventricular surface metric. The current findings provided important evidence for the limited effects of AD risk genes on the lateral ventricle.

Consistent with previous study (Nestor et al. 2008), our results showed that AD patients had the largest ventricular volume, followed by MCI and then for NC (Table 2), which reflected that lateral ventricle had a progressive expansion of volume with the development of AD. Risk genes were related to the increased AD incidence and could cause abnormal expansion of ventricle in the elderly (Karch and Goate 2015; Roussotte et al. 2014b; Erten-Lyons et al. 2013), which was mainly due to the atrophy of the subcortical structures around the lateral ventricles, including hippocampal (Stoub et al. 2010), thalamus (Zarei et al. 2010), and caudate nucleus (Madsen et al. 2010), etc. Nevertheless, the atrophy of ventricular surface was observed in C allele carriers at the SNP rs744373.

Lateral ventricle is adjacent to several AD-related brain structures, including hippocampus, thalamus, caudate nucleus, and corpus callosum (Fig. 1), thus, ventricle and surrounding structures have an ability to influence each other reciprocally (Tang et al. 2014; Shi et al. 2015). In contrast to the *ApoE* and *CLU* rs11136000, carriers of the C risk allele at rs744373 showed significant atrophy in temporal horn and dorsolateral of anterior horn/body (Fig. 3), as well as the volume of C allele carriers was significantly reduced (Table 3), which implying that the surrounding subcortical structures had not yet significantly atrophy. It is well known that some known AD risk allele (*ApoE* E4, C allele at *CLU* rs11136000, etc.) accelerate the atrophy of AD-related biomarker and cognitive decline (Roussotte et al. 2014b; An et al. 2021). Therefore, the atrophy of lateral ventricle may reflect the protective role of this locus for brain atrophy. The temporal horn locates in the dorsolateral area of hippocampus, and prior research had found that healthy homozygous carriers of the risk allele at rs744373 showed significantly increased gray matter volume (GMV) in the bilateral temporal cortex, including hippocampus, amygdala, and parahippocampal gyrus (Zhang et al. 2015). Genetic factors could affect white matter density of the corpus callosum (Pol et al. 2006), which was above the dorsolateral of anterior horn, body, and occipital horn (Karakas et al. 2011), so perhaps C allele at rs744373 suppress the atrophy of the bottom of corpus callosum. The most likely explanation for the decreased lateral ventricular volume was the compensatory recruitment of neural resources, which could help AD patients to maintain a certain level of cognitive performance (Buckner 2004). Increased recruitment is a compensatory response to maintain cognitive function. Brain atrophy and cognitive decline in AD patients are undoubtedly an intricate

process, including vascular compromise, amyloid deposits, neuron loss, and neurotransmitter depletion (Buckner 2004), etc. *BINI* is located on chromosome 2q, has been identified as the second most important locus for AD, after *ApoE* (Tan et al. 2013). It also plays a role in the regulation of tau pathology, amyloid- β peptide (A β), apoptosis, and cytoskeleton integrity (Franzmeier et al. 2019). The levels of tau and A β were all reported to be related to the ventricular volume (Ott et al. 2010). Meanwhile, one study mentioned *BINI* has a specific role in postsynaptic sites in the brain, leading to an increase in pCaMKII cluster volume as a compensatory response to presynaptic changes (De Rossi et al. 2020).

ApoE, *BINI*, *CLU*, *PICALM*, and *CRI* were five most widely studied AD susceptibility loci in neuroimaging. For the association between susceptibility loci and ventricular surface morphology, except for *BINI* rs744373, other loci did not pass the correction in our study (Fig. 2). However, this does not necessarily indicate that other susceptibility loci have no effect on the changes in lateral ventricle, perhaps due to the cross-sectional data and the insufficient statistical power to detect subtle differences in surface. In particular, the number of minor allele homozygous subjects was relatively small. The enlargement of lateral ventricle volume is known to be a consequence of multiple risk factors rather than a single cause, such as dietary cholesterol (Schreurs et al. 2013) and systemic inflammation (Walker et al. 2017).

MoCA total score reflects the cognitive profiles of participant (Freitas et al. 2012). The cognitive function was primarily associated with the bilateral occipital horns (Fig. 4E) adjacent to the hippocampus, which is the most affected structure of brain in AD patients (den Heijer et al. 2010). Impaired memory is a typical symptom of AD. Our results suggested that delayed recall function was associated with the whole lateral ventricle, particularly in anterior horn and body (Fig. 4A), which was an indirect proof of the relationship between memory and hippocampus, thalamus, caudate, corpus callosum, respectively (Preston and Eichenbaum 2013; O'Mara 2013; Stoffers et al. 2014; Qiu et al. 2016). In term of the language function, only the temporal horn of right ventricle exhibited significant correlation (Fig. 4B). In addition, for visuospatial function, the trigone area of the left lateral ventricle showed a strong association (Fig. 4D), adjacent to the motor and sensory centers in the parietal lobe (Ma et al. 2014a). Smaller areas of body, occipital horn and temporal horn of left lateral ventricle were related to the orientation function (Fig. 4C). Apart from delayed recall, AD patients also showed variable degrees of impairments in language, visuospatial, and orientation domains (Cloutier et al. 2015). These results may further prove that surrounding structures were crucial for cognitive function.

The current study had several potential limitations. First, and as stated, this study was cross-sectional, which could not evaluate the long-term impact of risk allele. Previous

related studies of *ApoE* and *CLU* observed significant effects on lateral ventricular surface morphology at the 24-month follow-up (Roussotte et al. 2014a, b), so the longitudinal study may reveal the effects of other loci. Second, we could not determine if the effect of these genes were additive or interactive. Our study focused on the single variant, while ignoring the complex interactions between genes. Third, previous studies have mentioned that there is no significant correlation between head movement and voxel-based morphology, subcortical structures segmentation, respectively (Cole et al. 2017; Pardoe et al. 2016), but we think it is necessary to introduce accurately measured head motion parameters into the analysis process. We did not consider the subject motion in our analysis due to a lack of data on level of motion. Finally, the relatively small sample size may restrict the generalizability of the results. Our conclusion should be validated in other larger databases, such as UK Biobank (Sudlow et al. 2015), ENIGMA (Thompson et al. 2014) and NDAR (Hall et al. 2012).

In conclusion, our present study revealed that in the 18 AD susceptibility loci, only *BINI* rs744373 had a significant impact on the ventricular surface. There is not always a direct relationship between genes and brain changes, but was conducted by multiple risk factors with complex mechanism. In addition, we found that different subregions of lateral ventricle were related to various cognitive functions, including delayed recall, orientation, language, and visuospatial. The current finding provided evidence for the underlying mechanisms of *BINI*, and altered surface morphology of lateral ventricle contributed to the study about the surrounding brain structures to search for the reliable biomarkers of AD.

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Author contributions SL: conceptualization, formal analysis, and writing—original draft. NA: methodology and visualization. NC: formal analysis and visualization. YW: writing—original draft and investigation. LY: writing—original draft and investigation. YW: methodology. ZY: conceptualization and supervision. BH: conceptualization and supervision.

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Availability of data and material All data used are from the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu).

Code availability The code we used can be obtained by contacting the corresponding authors.

Declarations

Conflict of interest There is no conflict of interest to disclose.

Ethics approval Data involved in the study came from the publicly open Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative (ADNI) database. All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975.

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