

Progressive alterations in brain connectivity patterns revealed by diffusion-tensor brain networks across severity stages in Alzheimer's disease

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15 **Keywords:** Diffusion-Tensor Imaging; Brain networks; Alzheimer's disease, Severity progression

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17

18 **Abstract.** Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a chronically progressive neurodegenerative disease highly
19 correlated to aging. Whether AD originates by targeting a localized brain area and propagates to the
20 rest of the brain across disease-severity progression is a question with an unknown answer. Here, this
21 question is addressed at the group-level by looking to differences in diffusion-tensor brain networks.
22 In particular, making use of data from Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI), 4
23 different groups were defined (all of them matched by age, sex and education level): $G_1(N_1 = 36$,
24 healthy control participants, HC), $G_2(N_2 = 36$, early mild cognitive impairment, EMCI), $G_3(N_3 =$
25 36 , late mild cognitive impairment, LMCI) and $G_4(N_4 = 36$, AD). We built diffusion-tensor brain
26 networks and performed group comparison across 3 disease stages: stage I (HC vs EMCI), stage II
27 (HC vs LMCI) and stage III (HC vs AD). The group comparison was performed using the
28 multivariate distance matrix regression analysis, a technique that was born in genomics and was
29 recently proposed to handle functional network data, but here was applied to diffusion-tensor data.
30 The results were three-fold: First, no significant differences were found in stage I. Second, in stage II,
31 statistically significant differences were found in the connectivity pattern of a subnetwork strongly
32 associated to memory function (including part of the hippocampus, amygdala, entorhinal cortex,
33 fusiform gyrus, inferior and middle temporal gyrus, parahippocampal gyrus and temporal pole).
34 Third, a widespread disconnection across the entire AD brain was found in stage III, affecting
35 stronger to the same memory subnetwork appearing in stage II plus to other subnetworks, including
36 the default mode network, the medial visual network, frontoparietal regions, and subnetworks
37 encompassing mainly subcortical structures (including part of the hippocampus, amygdala and
38 putamen). The novelty of the approach lies in the fact that group differences were approached across
39 severity progression. A better possibility would have been to analyze well time-resolved longitudinal
40 data, building diffusion-tensor networks belonging to the same patient across all disease stages (from
41 control to AD), but such data (to the best of our knowledge) are not available yet.

42 Introduction

43 Alzheimer's disease (AD), the most common form of dementia, is a chronically progressive
44 neurodegenerative disease highly correlated to aging; indeed, although the prevalence of clinically
45 manifested AD is about 2% at the age of 65 years, it increases to about 30% at the age of 85 years
46 (Wimo et al. 1997).

47 AD is characterized by an accumulation of beta-amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles
48 composed of tau amyloid fibrils (Hardy 2006) associated with synapse loss and neurodegeneration
49 leading to long-term memory impairment and other cognitive problems. There is currently no known
50 treatment that slows down the progression of this disorder.

51 The initial AD pathology develops many years before the cognitive and functional impairments are
52 evident. Different terms have been used to describe this disease-starting condition, including pre-
53 dementia and prodromal AD or MCI (mild cognitive impairment). The concept of MCI, a disorder
54 situated in the spectrum between normal age-related cognitive decline and dementia, has varied over
55 the past 2 decades. Indeed, MCI has been classified into different broad categories depending on
56 memory performance and the number of impaired cognitive functions (Mueller *et al.* 2005).

57 An accurate prediction of conversion from MCI to AD can help to clinicians to evaluate AD risk pre-
58 symptomatically, initiate treatments at early stage, and monitor their effectiveness (Cheng *et al.*
59 2015, Li *et al.* 2014). However, the group of MCI is highly heterogeneous, and not all MCI patients
60 convert to AD (Ritter *et al.* 2015). Indeed, the annual rate in which MCI progresses to dementia
61 varies between 8% and 15% per year (Mitchell and Shiri-Feshki 2009). The amnesic subtype of MCI
62 is more prevalent than non-amnesic one (Petersen *et al.* 2010), and it has a significantly higher
63 annual conversion rate to AD, between 30% (Schmidtke and Hermeneit 2008, Rozzini *et al.* 2007) to
64 40% (Geslani *et al.* 2005).

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65 This study aims to search for neuroimaging biomarkers that can account for differences with respect
66 to a healthy control (HC) population from the early to the final stages of AD. Multitude of different
67 neuroimaging studies has addressed the conversion from MCI to AD, see (Zhang *et al.* 2014) and
68 references therein. In relation to structural magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), it was shown that the
69 hippocampus volume and the volume from other subcortical structures at MCI were well correlated
70 to a worse progression to AD, with accuracy of about 65% in the prediction from MCI to AD (Teipel
71 *et al.* 2015).

72 Rather than assuming that specific brain regions are going to be affected by AD, other authors
73 achieved a better accuracy in the prediction from MCI to AD (achieving values of about 80%
74 accuracy) by performing a blind approach including multiple regions of interest (Westman *et al.*
75 2011, Eskildsen *et al.* 2013, Liu *et al.* 2013). The use of Tensor Diffusion MRI in combination with
76 structural MRI has provided better results as compared to solely structural MRI, finding that white-
77 matter integrity of the fornix, cingulum, and parahippocampal gyrus provided accuracy varying from
78 80% to even 95% (Wee *et al.* 2013, Mielke *et al.* 2012, Douaud *et al.* 2013).

79 Initiatives like the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) provide open access to the
80 research community to important material and resources (demographic data, imaging datasets,
81 cognitive tests, etc.) to study AD, pushing forward studies correlating different imaging modalities to
82 the neuropsychological disease's status. Interestingly, ADNI also allows the possibility of studying
83 variations in the images across disease's progression, as brain images are categorized in different
84 groups ranging from HC to AD, with two intermediate stages, early and late mild cognitive
85 impairment, EMCI and LMCI, respectively. Albeit EMCI and LMCI patients have some memory
86 impairment beyond the standard dysfunction associated exclusively to aging or education level
87 (Medina *et al.* 2006), the conversion rate to AD is only of 5-10% per year (Mitchell and Shiri-Feshki

88 2009). Thus, this group of individuals become of special importance in the searching for new
89 imaging markers that can correlate with disease progression.

90 Despite extensive research shedding light into this problem, the precise mechanisms and clinical
91 variables responsible for the progression from MCI to AD have not been fully characterized, mainly
92 due to the lack of time-resolved longitudinal studies in large populations. Here, motivated by
93 previous work (Khedher *et al.* 2015, Douaud *et al.* 2011, Bosch *et al.* 2012, Liu *et al.* 2013, Acosta-
94 Cabronero *et al.* 2012, Preti *et al.* 2012), the study focuses on the variations of brain networks across
95 the AD progression, and it is hypothesized that, if in the transition from HC to MCI the connectivity
96 pattern of some subnetworks is altered, it will propagate to the rest of the AD brain.

97

98 **Material and Methods**

99 **2.1 Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI)**

100 The DTI images used in this paper were obtained from ADNI database <http://adni.loni.usc.edu>.
101 ADNI was launched in 2003 by the Nat. Inst. on Aging (NIA), the Nat. Inst. Biomedical Imaging and
102 Bioengineering (NIBIB), the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), private pharmaceutical
103 companies and non-profit organizations, as a \$60 million, 5-year public-private partnership. ADNI's
104 main goal has been to test whether serial MRI, positron emission tomography (PET), other biological
105 markers, and clinical and neuropsychological assessment can be combined to measure the
106 progression of MCI and early AD. Determination of sensitive and specific markers of very early AD
107 progression is intended to aid researchers and clinicians to develop new treatments and monitor their
108 effectiveness, as well as to lessen the time and cost of clinical trials. The Principal Investigator of this
109 initiative is Michael W. Weiner, MD, VA Medical Center and Univ. California – San Francisco.

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110 ADNI subjects have been recruited from over 50 sites across the U.S. and Canada. Currently, around
111 1500 adults were recruited in the different ADNI initiatives, ages 55 to 90, consisting of cognitively
112 normal older (NC), early/late MCI (EMCI/LMCI), significant memory concern (SMC) and early AD
113 (AD) individuals. The follow up duration of each group is specified in the protocols for ADNI-1,
114 ADNI-2 and ADNI-GO, see further information in www.adni-info.org .

115

116 **2.2 Demographic Data**

117 A total number of N=144 subjects were used in this study (Table I). This number was chosen in order
118 to get the biggest 4 groups as possible (HC, EMCI, LMCI and AD), balanced by size, age and sex.
119 DTI images were selected and downloaded from ADNI database, belonging to 4 different groups:
120 HC (N₁=36), EMCI (N₂=36), LMCI (N₃=36) and AD (N₄=36). Age and sex were balanced across
121 groups (Table II), respectively, using a t-test and chi-squared test. In addition, it is important to
122 remark that the “years of education” variable was already controlled by the ADNI group
123 classification, for details see Inclusion criteria in page 31 of [https://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-](https://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2008/07/adni2-procedures-manual.pdf)
124 [content/uploads/2008/07/adni2-procedures-manual.pdf](https://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2008/07/adni2-procedures-manual.pdf)

125

126 **2.3 ADNI group classification**

127 The group labels HC, EMCI, LMCI and AD are based on several test scores, such as the Logical
128 Memory II subscale (LMIIS) from the Wechsler Memory Scale, the Mini-Mental State Examination
129 (MMSE) and the Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR), as well as National Institute of Neurological and
130 Communicative Disorders and Stroke and the AD and Related Disorders Association

131 (NINCDS/ADRDA) criteria in AD cases. In the procedures manual each of the criteria are cited
132 (<http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp-content/uploads/2008/07/adni2-procedures-manual.pdf>).

133 HC subjects are free of memory complaints (beyond what expected due to age), verified by a study
134 partner. EMCI, LMCI and AD must have a subjective memory concern as reported by subject, study
135 partner, or clinician. Details of specific groups are given in Table III.

136

137 **2.4 Group-level stages for AD progression**

138 AD progression was defined by three different stages: stage I (control vs EMCI), stage II (control vs
139 LMCI) and stage III (control vs AD). More details in Figure 1.

140

141 **2.5 DTI acquisitions**

142 All subjects in this study had the same ADNI imaging protocol, explained in
143 <http://adni.loni.usc.edu/methods/documents/mri-protocols/> and consisting in whole-brain MRI 3T
144 scanners and Diffusion Weighted Images (DWI) images of the axial DTI series. The DTI images
145 were acquired using spin echo pulse sequence echo-planar-imaging (SE-EPI) with the following
146 parameters: TR = 9050.0 ms; TE set to minimum (values ranging from 60 ms till 69 ms); 59 slices
147 with thickness of 2.7 mm with no gap among slices; 128x128 matrix with a FOV of 35.0 cm; with
148 matrix pixels 256x256x2714 and voxel size 1.36x1.36x2.7 mm³, flip angle = 90°. A diffusion
149 gradient was applied along 41 non-collinear directions with a b value of 1000 s/mm². Additionally,
150 one set of images was acquired with no diffusion weighting (b= 0 s/mm²).

151

152 **2.6 Diffusion tensor brain networks**

153 To build diffusion tensor brain networks a similar methodology as in previous work was followed
154 (Diez *et al.* 2015, Alonso-Montes *et al.* 2015, Amor *et al.* 2015) using FSL (FMRIB Software
155 Library v5.0) and the Diffusion Toolkit. First, all the selected images were downloaded in DICOM
156 and transformed to Nifti format for further analysis. Next, an eddy current correction was applied to
157 overcome the artifacts produced by variation in the gradient field directions, together with the
158 artifacts produced by head movements. Next, using the corrected data, a local fitting of the diffusion
159 tensor was applied to compute the diffusion tensor model for each voxel. Next, a Fiber Assignment
160 by Continuous Tracking (FACT) algorithm was applied (Mori *et al.* 1999). Then a transformation
161 from the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space to the individual-subject diffusion space was
162 applied and projected the brain hierarchical atlas (available to download at
163 http://www.nitrc.org/projects/biocr_hcatlas/). In particular, M=20 modules were considered that was
164 shown in (Diez *et al.* 2015) to best-match functional connectivity modules with structural ones. This
165 allowed building 20 x 20 structural connectivity (SC) matrices, each per subject, by counting the
166 number of white matter streamlines connecting all module pairs. Thus, the element matrix (i,j) of SC
167 is given by the streamlines number between modules i and j . As a result, SC is a symmetric matrix,
168 where connectivity from i to j is equal to that from j to i .

169

170 **2.6 Cross-group analysis: Multivariate Distance Matrix Regression**

171 The cross-group analysis has been performed using the Multivariate Distance Matrix Regression
172 (MDMR) approach proposed in (Shehzad *et al.* 2014). Based on the hypothesis that at the early
173 stages of the AD progression, if some subnetworks disconnect will propagate at further stages to the
174 rest of the brain, a multivariate distance regression was chosen to apply, which allows testing the

175 variation of distance in connectivity patterns between groups as a response of the Alzheimer's
176 progression as compared to the HC state. For a fixed brain module i , the distance between
177 connectivity patterns of module i to the rest of the brain was calculated per pair of subjects (u,v) --by
178 calculating Pearson correlation between connectivity vectors of subject pairs--, thus leading to a
179 distance matrix in the subject space for each module i investigated. In particular, the following
180 formula was calculated

$$181 \quad d_{uv}^i = \sqrt{2 \cdot (1 - r_{uv})} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

182 where r_{uv} is the Pearson correlation between connectivity patterns of i for subjects u and v . After
183 repeating the same procedure for all subjects, as many distance matrices as partition modules
184 ($i = 1, \dots, 20$) were obtained. Next, MDMR was applied to perform cross-group analysis as
185 implemented in R (McArtor 2016).

186 It is important to emphasize that NDMR does not look to how individual modules are locally
187 organized or connected, but to the integration connectivity pattern between those segregated modules
188 to the rest of the brain. Therefore, when NDMR finds group differences in a given module, this
189 means that the connectivity alterations from that module are being propagated to the rest of the brain.

190 MDMR yielded a pseudo-F estimator (analogous to that F-estimator in standard ANOVA analysis),
191 which addresses significance of disease strength due to between-group variation as compared to
192 within-group variations (McArdle and Anderson 2001). To compare between groups when the
193 regressor variable is categorical (*i.e.* the group label), given a distance matrix, one can calculate the
194 total sum of squares as

$$195 \quad SS_T = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{u=1} \sum_{v=1+1} d_{uv}^2, \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

196 with N being the total number of subjects. Notice that, from here on, we will consider $d_{uv} \equiv d_{uv}^i$.
197 Thus, we got a different SS_T for each module i . Similarly, the within-group sum of squares can be
198 written as

$$199 \quad SS_W = \sum \frac{1}{n_g} \sum_{u=1} \sum_{v=u+1} d_{uv}^2 \varepsilon_{uv}^g, \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

200 where n_g is the number of subjects per group and ε_{uv}^g a variable equal to 1 if subjects u and v belong
201 to group g and 0 otherwise. The between-group variation is simply $SS_A = SS_T - SS_W$, which leads
202 to a pseudo-F statistic that reads

$$203 \quad F = \frac{SS_A/(m-1)}{SS_W/(N-m)} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

204 where m is the number of groups. As it was acknowledged in (Zapala and Schork 2006), the pseudo-
205 F statistic is not distributed like the usual Fisher's F-distribution under the null hypothesis.
206 Accordingly, we randomly shuffled the subject indices and computed the pseudo-F statistic for each
207 time. A p-value is computed by counting those pseudo F-statistic values from permuted data greater
208 than that from the original data respect to the total number of performed permutations.

209 Finally, we controlled for type I errors due to the 20 independent statistical performed tests by false
210 discovery rate corrections (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995). Corrected whole-brain connectivity
211 patterns of modules are the ones related to AD progression at the different stages. An schematic
212 overview of the method can be found in Figure 2.

213

214 **3. Results**

215 Results are summarized in Table IV and modules involved in the disease progression are shown in
216 Figure 3. See also Table V for some examples of the different terms participating in the statistical
217 test.

218

219 **3.1 Stage I: HC vs EMCI**

220 A total number of 36 images per each group were selected to perform group comparison. No
221 significant differences were found in terms of module connectivity patterns to the whole brain.

222

223 **3.2 Stage II: HC vs LMCI**

224 A total number of 36 images per each group were selected to perform group comparison. Significant
225 differences were found for the connectivity between the module 18 and the rest of the brain
226 ($p=0.007$). As detailed in (27), the module 18 of the brain hierarchical atlas consisted in part of the
227 hippocampus, amygdala, entorhinal cortex, fusiform gyrus, inferior temporal gyrus, middle temporal
228 gyrus, parahippocampal gyrus and temporal pole.

229

230 **3.3 Stage III: HC vs AD**

231 A total number of 36 images per each group were selected to perform group comparison. For this
232 situation, the number of significantly different connectivity patterns was found in multiple modules
233 from the brain hierarchical atlas:

234 Module 1 ($p=0.023$); including part of the posterior cingulate.

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235 Module 2 ($p=0.049$); including part of the putamen, anterior cingulate, rostral pars of the middle
236 frontal gyrus, superior parietal gyrus, supramarginal gyrus, insula, inferior parietal gyrus, precentral
237 gyrus and superior frontal gyrus.

238 Module 3 ($p=0.049$); part of the paracentral lobe, precentral gyrus, postcentral gyrus, precuneus,
239 superior frontal gyrus, superior parietal gyrus, superior temporal gyrus, supramarginal gyrus and
240 insula.

241 Module 4 ($p=0.031$); part of the cuneus, lateral occipital sulcus, lingual gyrus, pericalcarine cortex
242 and precuneus.

243 Module 8 ($p=0.031$); part of the caudate nucleus and putamen.

244 Module 12 ($p=0.031$); part of the inferior parietal gyrus, inferior temporal gyrus, lateral frontal
245 orbital gyrus, pars orbitalis, pars triangularis, rostral pars of the middle frontal gyrus, superior frontal
246 gyrus, caudate nucleus and anterior cingulate.

247 Module 14 ($p=0.006$); part of the thalamus, hippocampus, amygdala, putamen, ventral
248 diencephalon, banks of the superior temporal sulcus, parahippocampal gyrus, superior temporal
249 gyrus, insula, middle temporal gyrus and temporal pole.

250 Module 15 ($p=0.031$); part of the thalamus, putamen, pallidum, brainstem, hippocampus, amygdala,
251 accumbens nucleus, ventral diencephalon, orbital gyrus and insula.

252 Module 16 ($p=0.031$); part of the cerebellum, banks of the superior temporal sulcus, inferior parietal
253 gyrus, cingulate isthmus, middle temporal gyrus, precuneus and superior temporal gyrus.

254 Module 18 ($p=0.002$); see previous 3.2 section for the anatomical description, but notice a reduction
255 in p value from 0.007 (HC vs LMCI) to 0.002 (HC vs AD).

256

257 **3.4 Common affected modules between stages**

258 Connectivity pattern of module 18 to the rest of the brain was found at stage II ($p=0.007$) and at stage
259 III ($p=0.002$), indicating that the further the disease progresses, the greater the connectivity of
260 module 18 is altered to the rest of the brain.

261

262 **4. Discussion**

263 The aim of the study was to identify differences in brain connectivity patterns between three groups
264 with different disease severity and a control group. For this purpose, diffusion tensor brain networks
265 were built allowing determining connectivity differences at three consecutive disease stages: stage I
266 (HC vs EMCI), stage II (HC vs LMCI) and stage III (HC vs AD).

267 The results showed an absence of significant changes in connectivity patterns in stage I, that is,
268 between patients with early mild cognitive impairment and healthy individuals. The approach we
269 have applied, the Multivariate Distance Matrix Regression (MDMR) analysis, finds group
270 differences in the connectivity patterns from different modules to the rest of the brain. Therefore, at
271 very early mild cognitive impairment, although possible structural damages might occur locally, they
272 are not capable to produce global inter-module network reorganization/redistribution that can be
273 measured by the NDMR analysis.

274 However, significant differences were found by the MDMR method in stage II to a network involved
275 with memory (module 18), which includes the hippocampus, amygdala, entorhinal cortex, fusiform
276 gyrus, inferior temporal gyrus, mean temporal gyrus, parahippocampal gyrus and the temporal pole,
277 among patients with late mild cognitive impairment and healthy individuals. This change in

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278 connectivity in module 18 becomes more evident in patients with AD. Finally, a multitude of
279 different modules are connected differently in AD as compared to healthy subjects (modules 1-4, 8,
280 12, 14-16 and 18), including the default mode network, the sensory-motor network, the medial visual
281 network, frontoparietal regions and networks that mainly encompass subcortical structures (including
282 part of the hippocampus, amygdala and putamen).

283 The brain connectivity changes found in this study in stage II might be related to the appearance of
284 several cognitive manifestations, which are typical of AD. For example, many studies have
285 determined the main cognitive impairment in the preclinical phase of AD is episodic memory
286 (Almkvist, 1996, Arnaiz et al., 2003; Albert et al., 2001; Bäckman et al., 2004, 2005; Grober et al.,
287 2008), in which hippocampal formation, entorhinal cortex, amygdala and hypothalamus are involved;
288 that is, regions of the temporal-medial lobe which are regions affected before AD can be clinically
289 diagnosed (Almkvist, 1996; Bäckman et al., 2004, 2005; Small et al., 1999; Estévez-González et al.,
290 2003; Small et al., 2003). In addition, it is known that the initial neuronal lesions in AD also begin in
291 the entorhinal region (included in module 18, therefore, in agreement with our results) with the
292 accumulation of neurofibrillary tangles and neuritic plaques (Gómez-Isla et al., 1996).

293 Although alterations of the episodic memory are considered the most critical ones at the preclinical
294 phase (Small, et al., 2003; Storandt, 2008) and tasks that measure episodic memory have been shown
295 to be particularly effective at identifying people at risk for developing AD (Elias et al., 2000; Tierney
296 et al., 1996), studies have shown that people with mild cognitive impairment who have altered
297 episodic memory and other cognitive areas such as verbal ability (Apostolova et al., 2008; Arnaiz et
298 al et al., 2003; Bäckman et al., 2004, 2005; Joubert et al., 2010), executive functions (Albert et al.,
299 2001; Bäckman et al., 2004, 2005; Dickerson et al., 2007; Grober et al., 2008; Storandt, 2008;
300 Blacker et al., 2007; Rapp et al., 2005), perceptual speed (Bäckman et al., 2005), Visuo-spatial /
301 visuoperceptive skills (Almkvist, 1996, Arnaiz et al., 2003; Bäckman et al., 2004, 2005; Alegret et

302 al., 2009), attention (Bäckman et al., 2005; Rapp et al., 2005), etc. are more likely to convert to AD
303 than those with only memory impairment (Bozoki et al., 2001). As indicated by Bäckman et al.
304 (2004, 2005), some studies suggest that other areas in addition to the ones in temporal-medial lobe
305 are altered prior to the diagnosis of AD, such as volume reduction of anterior cingulate and temporal
306 sulcus, posterior cingulate, temporoparietal regions, frontal regions; decreased blood flow in the
307 posterior cingulate and precuneus, reduced glucose in temporoparietal regions and deposition of
308 amyloid plaques in the temporal and frontal cortex. This may explain why studies attempting to find
309 cognitive markers of the AD preclinical stage find alterations in other cognitive functions apart from
310 episodic memory.

311 As the disease progresses, not only the disconnection pattern of module 18 becomes more evident
312 (increasing the distance between AD and controls, Table IV), but such significant changes extend to
313 other brain regions. For example, areas of the hippocampus affected by module 14 are well known to
314 suffer a very severe cognitive degeneration, a fact also confirmed by functional connectivity studies
315 (Zhou *et al.* 2008). The results also indicate a significant connectivity change with temporal medial
316 areas, as revealed by module 16, as shown in Tract Based Spatial Statistics at (Stricker *et al.* 2009,
317 Acosta-Cabronero *et al.* 2010, Salat *et al.* 2010). The authors of (He *et al.* 2007) demonstrated,
318 through a combined structural and functional analysis, changes in connectivity between the lingual
319 and cuneus, confirming the results of this study obtained exclusively from structural connectivity
320 data. At the same time, the results indicate a significant change in the connectivity of the entire brain
321 to the areas provided by module 4, mainly affected by visual functions. For example, a decrease in
322 virtual capacity due to AD is well known, especially in those areas involving movement blindness,
323 depth perception, color perception and contrast sensitivity (Whittaker *et al.* 2002). Again, this
324 damage expansion to other brain regions also agrees with the extent and worsening of cognitive
325 aspects (e.g., memory, attention, language; Weintraub *et al.* 2012) and neurobehavioral problems

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326 (e.g. personality changes, anxiety, depression, agitation, hallucinations; Chung & Cummings, 2000,
327 Bassiony et al., 2000, Senanarong et al., 2003) of patients with AD.

328 Previous studies have analyzed the connectivity differences from tensor diffusion networks in AD
329 and have found significant alterations in the inferior longitudinal fasciculus for patients at risk of AD
330 (Smith *et al.* 2010), which could correspond to LMCI. Similarly, a voxel-based analysis in (Honea *et*
331 *al.* 2009) showed a significant decrease in FA for fibers connecting the parahippocampal gyrus. In
332 addition, patients diagnosed in the early stages of AD (corresponding to early or late mild cognitive
333 impairment in this study) had a significant reduction in white matter in the upper longitudinal
334 fasciculus, which also connects part of module 18 in the brain hierarchical atlas with the frontal lobe
335 (Rose *et al.* 2000). The authors (Hanyu *et al.* 1998) found significant changes in apparent diffusion
336 coefficients and diffusion anisotropy in patients with recent progressive cognitive impairment,
337 suggesting an early decrease in temporal fiber density, a region included in the module 18, therefore
338 in concordance to our results.

339

340 Implications

341 In recent years a great deal of emphasis has been placed on the early AD detection (Albert et al.,
342 2001). The results of this study have great clinical implications since the analysis of cerebral
343 connectivity could help in the early diagnosis of the disease. This early detection would help to look
344 for pharmacological or non-pharmacological treatment methods to help delay the age of disease onset
345 or to slow down the clinical disease progression.

346 On the other hand, identifying the brain connection patterns in those patients who have not yet
347 developed AD, will allow us to know the changes that occur in these connectivity patterns over time.

348 In addition, it will be possible to associate those connectivity patterns with clinical patient's changes
349 present at each disease stage. This might help to better understand the relationship between
350 deterioration in brain functioning and the clinical patient's characteristics.

351 Limitations

352 The results of the present study should be interpreted in light of the following limitations. First, it is a
353 cross-sectional study with different groups of people in each experimental group and with a small
354 sample size, so future studies should try to extend to bigger cohorts and follow the same group of
355 people over time as the disease progresses. Second, the patients included in the study have a probable
356 AD, which means that the definitive diagnosis of AD can only be performed post-mortem (Fearing et
357 al., 2007). The use of patients with familial AD could help to know in depth the evolution of the
358 disease and the changes in cerebral connectivity from many years back to its onset. Third, there are a
359 number of risk factors associated with the decline of mild cognitive impairment which can affect
360 brain connectivity such as advanced diabetes, symptomatology depressive disorder, hypertension,
361 hypotension, obesity, history of traumatic brain injury and APOE genotype, that have not been taken
362 into account in this study. Future studies should take into account the possible influence of these
363 variables on the processes of cerebral connectivity.

364 In conclusion, the deterioration of cerebral connectivity is evident and is in line with the evolution of
365 AD from both the neuropathological and neuropsychological point of view. That is, the first cerebral
366 connectivity changes occur in the regions of the middle temporal lobe (hippocampus and entorhinal),
367 which coincides with the first symptoms of altered episodic memory in the preclinical stage and in
368 mild cognitive impairment. As the disease progresses, the brain damage and its disconnection of
369 these regions become more evident and expands to other areas, which coincides with the expansion

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370 and/or worsening of other cognitive functions and neurobehavioral aspects seen in the individuals
371 with AD.

372 **Author Contributions**

373 JR, CAM and ID had equal first-author contribution; JR, CAM and ID analyzed the data and made
374 the figures; LOL and JCAL connected results to cognitive deficits in AD; LR, IE, BM, PB, MF,
375 JCAL, SS and JMC designed the research; all the authors wrote the manuscript and agreed in its
376 submission; SS and JMC had equal last author contributions

377

378 **Acknowledgements**

379 SS acknowledges financial support from Bizkaia Talent and European Commission through
380 COFUND with the research project BRAhMS – Brain Aura Mathematical Simulation– (AYD-000-
381 285). JR acknowledges financial support from the Minister of
382 Education, Language Policy and Culture (Basque Government) under
383 Doctoral Research Staff Improvement Programme. JMC and JCAL acknowledge financial support
384 from grant DPI2016-79874-R from Ministerio Economía, Industria y Competitividad (Spain) and
385 FEDER. JMC, JCAL and PB acknowledge financial support from Ikerbasque: The Basque
386 Foundation for Science.

387

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553 **Table I: ADNI subjects within each group**

554 HC=Healthy controls, EMCI: Early mild cognitive impairment; LMCI=Late mild cognitive

555 impairment; AD= Alzheimer disease; M=Male, F=Female.

556

HC			EMCI			LMCI			AD		
<i>SubjectId</i>	<i>Sex</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>SubjectId</i>	<i>Sex</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>SubjectId</i>	<i>Sex</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>SubjectId</i>	<i>Sex</i>	<i>Age</i>
003_S_4119	M	79	003_S_2374	F	81	003_S_0908	F	70	003_S_4373	F	71
003_S_4839	M	66	007_S_2394	M	69	003_S_4354	M	76	003_S_5165	M	79
007_S_4488	M	73	016_S_4575	F	62	016_S_4584	F	78	003_S_5187	F	62
007_S_4516	M	72	021_S_2077	M	81	016_S_4646	F	61	005_S_4707	M	68
007_S_4620	M	77	021_S_2100	F	88	016_S_4902	F	75	005_S_4910	F	82
016_S_4121	M	89	021_S_2125	F	78	021_S_4402	F	73	005_S_5038	M	82
021_S_4558	F	71	021_S_2142	F	83	021_S_4633	F	73	005_S_5119	F	77
029_S_4279	M	84	021_S_4419	F	65	021_S_4857	M	68	007_S_4568	F	71

029_S_4290	M	74	021_S_4659	M	86	027_S_4729	F	78	007_S_4911	M	75
029_S_4384	M	62	021_S_4744	F	73	027_S_4757	F	63	007_S_5196	F	73
029_S_4385	F	68	029_S_2370	F	64	027_S_4804	M	80	016_S_4591	F	66
029_S_4585	M	66	029_S_2395	M	73	027_S_4869	M	77	016_S_4887	M	75
029_S_4652	M	79	029_S_4327	M	83	027_S_4873	M	83	016_S_4963	F	72
057_S_0934	F	77	029_S_5135	M	77	027_S_4936	M	78	016_S_5057	M	75
094_S_4234	M	70	094_S_2201	F	64	027_S_4943	M	76	016_S_5251	F	66
094_S_4459	F	68	094_S_2216	M	69	027_S_4955	M	72	021_S_4718	M	79
094_S_4460	F	67	094_S_2238	M	69	052_S_4626	M	69	021_S_4924	M	77
094_S_4503	F	72	094_S_2367	M	75	052_S_4807	F	72	027_S_4801	M	78
094_S_4649	M	66	094_S_4434	M	68	052_S_4945	M	57	027_S_4802	M	83
098_S_4002	F	74	098_S_2052	M	74	057_S_4888	M	75	027_S_4938	M	71
098_S_4003	F	72	098_S_2071	M	85	057_S_4909	F	78	027_S_4962	F	80

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098_S_4018	M	76	099_S_4205	F	84	094_S_4162	F	71	027_S_4964	M	81
098_S_4050	M	77	099_S_4498	F	80	094_S_4295	F	70	052_S_5062	F	71
098_S_4275	M	73	109_S_2110	F	68	094_S_4630	F	66	094_S_4089	M	74
098_S_4506	M	72	109_S_2111	M	72	109_S_4471	M	73	094_S_4737	F	74
099_S_4076	F	75	109_S_2200	F	76	109_S_4531	M	74	098_S_4201	F	64
127_S_4148	M	73	109_S_4380	M	72	126_S_4458	F	76	098_S_4215	M	82
127_S_4198	F	78	109_S_4455	M	64	126_S_4507	M	78	109_S_4378	M	80
127_S_4604	M	65	109_S_4594	M	62	126_S_4675	M	80	126_S_4494	M	71
127_S_4645	F	76	126_S_2360	M	64	126_S_4712	M	74	127_S_4749	F	78
127_S_4843	F	73	126_S_4891	M	60	126_S_4743	M	70	127_S_4992	F	64
129_S_0778	M	80	127_S_4301	M	75	126_S_4896	M	68	127_S_5028	M	62
129_S_4369	M	70	127_S_4624	F	78	127_S_4197	M	79	127_S_5056	M	85
129_S_4371	M	70	127_S_4765	M	76	127_S_4210	M	64	127_S_5058	M	62

Progressive alterations in AD brain connectivity

129_S_4396	F	81	129_S_2347	M	73	127_S_4240	M	71	127_S_5067	M	81
131_S_0123	M	81	129_S_4220	F	73	129_S_4287	F	73	127_S_5095	M	66

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Progressive brain disconnection in AD

559 **Table II: t-test and Chi² test across groups**

560 HC=Healthy controls, EMCI: Early mild cognitive impairment; LMCI=Late mild cognitive
561 impairment; AD= Alzheimer disease.

562

	HC VS EMCI		HC VS LMCI		HC VS AD	
	<i>test value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>test value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>test value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
Age (t-test)	0.0349	0.9722	0.5539	0.5814	0.2071	0.8365
Sex (Chi² test)	0.2338	0.6287	0.2338	0.6287	0.2338	0.6287

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567 **Table III: Further information about ADNI group classification.**

568 HC=Healthy controls, EMCI: Early mild cognitive impairment; LMCI=Late mild cognitive
 569 impairment; AD= Alzheimer disease; LMIIS=Logical Memory II subscale; MMSE= Mini Mental
 570 State Examination; CDR= Clinical Dementia Rating.

	HC	EMCI	LMCI	AD
LMIIIS (maximum of 25 points)				
Education ≥ 16 years	≥ 9	[9-11]	≤ 8	≤ 8
Education [8-15] years	≥ 5	[5-9]	≤ 4	≤ 4
Education [0-7] years	≥ 3	[3-6]	≤ 2	≤ 2
MMSE (Maximum of 30 points)	[24-30]	[24-30]	[24-30]	[20-26]
CDR	0	0.5	0.5	0.5 or 1
Memory Box Score (subpart of CDR)	0	at least 0.5	at least 0.5	NA

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573 **Table IV: p-values associated to each module from the brain hierarchical atlas.**

574 HC=Healthy controls, EMCI: Early mild cognitive impairment; LMCI=Late mild cognitive

575 impairment; AD= Alzheimer disease; * $0.01 < p < 0.05$; ** $0.005 < p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.005$.

576

Module	HC vs EMCI	HC vs LMCI	HC vs AD
1	0.956	0.753	0.023*
2	0.956	0.466	0.049*
3	0.956	0.441	0.049*
4	0.880	0.532	0.031*
5	0.859	0.689	0.973
6	0.859	0.438	0.546
7	0.956	0.900	0.503
8	0.859	0.449	0.031*
9	0.859	0.600	0.591

10	0.956	0.900	0.627
11	0.956	0.438	0.759
12	0.956	0.466	0.031*
13	0.859	0.600	0.531
14	0.956	0.438	0.006**
15	0.956	0.753	0.031*
16	0.956	0.986	0.031*
17	0.890	0.898	0.546
18	0.399	0.007**	0.002***
19	0.956	0.438	0.109
20	0.956	0.986	0.972

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579 **Table V: Examples of pseudo F-statistics, between-group and within-group sum of squares.**

580 Three different situations: Node 10, that does not provide any significant change in pattern
 581 connectivity; Node 16, significantly different in stage III; and Node 18, with pattern connectivity
 582 significantly different in stages II and III.

583 HC=Healthy controls, EMCI: Early mild cognitive impairment; LMCI=Late mild cognitive
 584 impairment; AD= Alzheimer disease

Module	HC vs EMCI			HC vs LMCI			HC vs AD		
	<i>F</i>	<i>SSA</i>	<i>SSW</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>SSA</i>	<i>SSW</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>SSA</i>	<i>SSW</i>
10	0.527	0.008	1.028	0.630	0.008	0.940	0.894	0.012	0.941
16	0.380	0.019	3.457	0.285	0.014	3.404	3.410	0.173	3.550
18	3.057	0.024	0.558	5.854	0.049	0.595	6.018	0.051	0.588

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586

587 **Figure 1: Details of group size and population demographic data.** Alzheimer's disease
588 progression is addressed across three stages. 4 groups of 36 subjects each show different stages of
589 AD (Healthy, Early and Late MCI, Alzheimer) under ADNI criterion. All groups have been balanced
590 with regard to age, sex and years of education. Brain connectivity patterns and its relation with
591 disease progression is accomplished by comparing the healthy control group with the rest of groups,
592 i.e. NC vs EMCI (bottom-left, stage I), NC vs LMCI (bottom-center, stage II) and NC vs AD
593 (bottom-right, stage III).

594

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595 **Figure 2: Schematic description of the method used to find brain modules connectivity patterns**
596 **that are statistically different between groups.** In a first step (top-red), brain images are prepared
597 for preprocessing by using standard techniques (Eddy current and correction for head motion) and
598 fibers connectivity matrices are computed by Continuous Tracking (FACT) algorithm. In the next
599 step (Distance matrix calculation in green), the connectivity patterns of subjects for a given module
600 are used to construct the distance matrix by means of Pearson correlation coefficients. Once the
601 distance matrix for a given module is calculated, we test (bottom-blue) whether the variability in
602 distance among different groups is statistically related with disease, for which we compare the
603 observed results with a simulated distribution given by N_{perm} permutations of the labels. We repeat
604 this operation for every module. We finally apply a multiple comparison correction to control the rate
605 of false discoveries (bottom-black)

606

607 **Figure 3: Brain mapping of p-values corresponding to modules that become statistically**
608 **different with regard to connectivity profile as disease progresses.** Brain disconnection as disease
609 progresses is quantitatively addressed by looking at the p-values of the modules. At first stages (HC
610 vs EMC, top), fibers deterioration is not sufficient to yield significant changes in modules
611 connectivity patterns. In a later stage (Control vs LMCI - middle), the connectivity pattern of module
612 18, which involves parts of the hippocampus, entorhinal cortex, amygdala and other memory-related
613 areas, disconnects statistically with respect to healthy subjects (p-val = 0.007). Such connectivity
614 differences are after spread to the rest of the brain at final stages (Control vs AD, bottom), showing a
615 clear deterioration given by a stronger decrease in p-values.

616

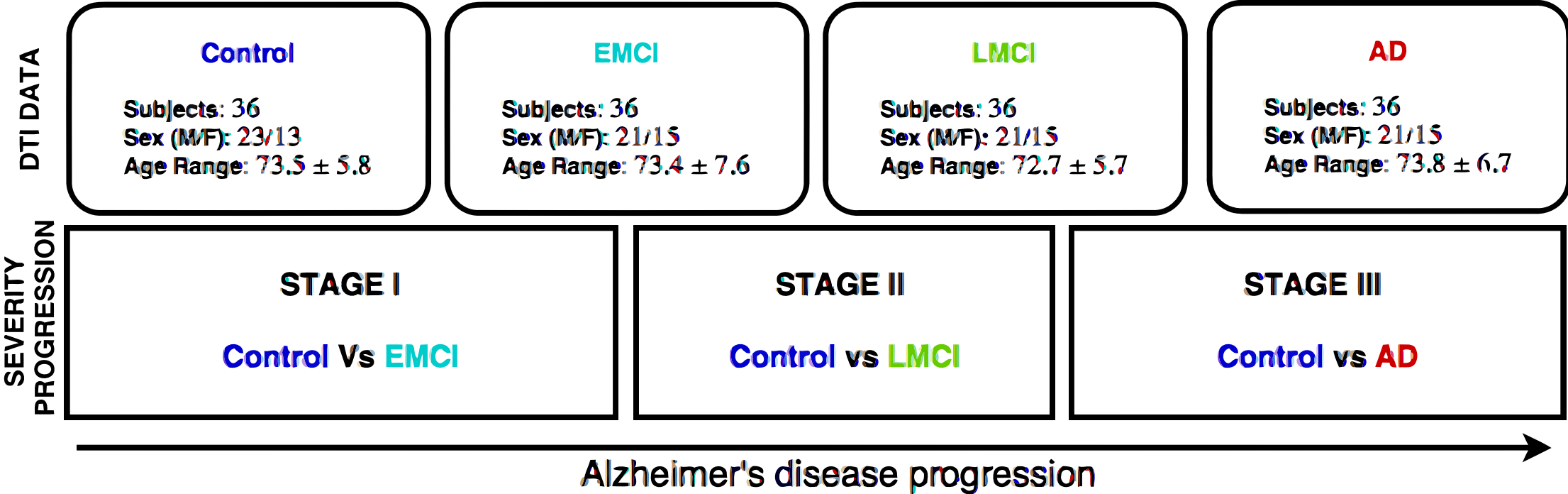
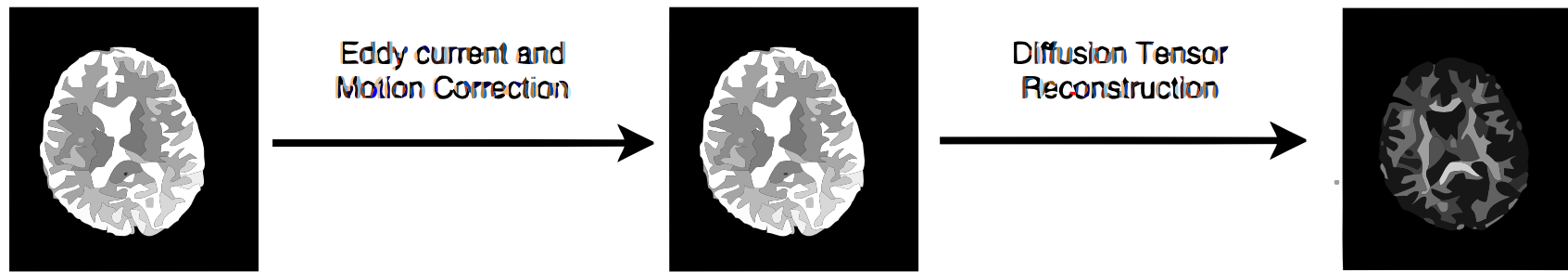


IMAGE PREPROCESSING

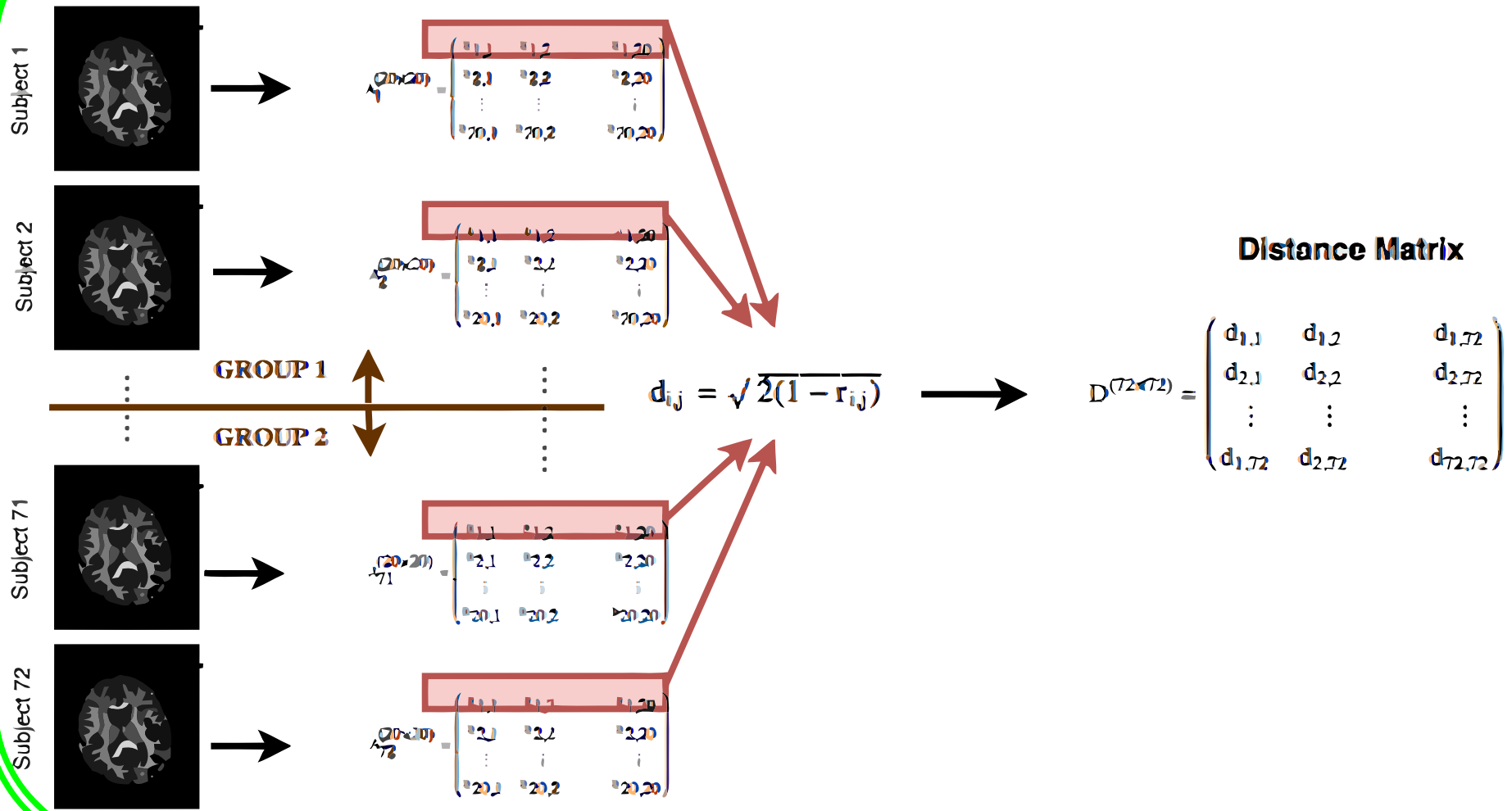


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Fibre number Data

Fibre pattern 1st region

DISTANCE MATRIX CALCULATION



REPEAT WITH ALL REGIONS

Pseudo F-stat measured:

$$F \sim \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N d_{ij}^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N d_{ij}^2 \epsilon_{ij}} - 1$$

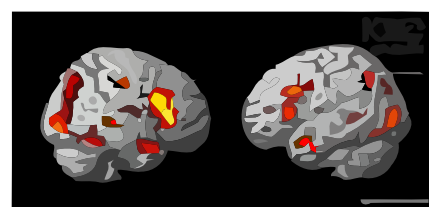
Recalculate F from permuted data

MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION

$$p_{val} = \frac{\#F_{permutations} > F}{N_{permutations}}$$

FALSE DISCOVERY RATE CORRECTIONS

$$FDR = \left\langle \frac{v}{v+s} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{v}{R} \right\rangle$$



NO significant modules

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