Brain age predictions in longitudinal data reveal the importance of scan quality and field strength

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Running title

Associations of scan quality and field strength with longitudinal brain age

Keywords

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Code and data availability

Data processing pipeline and weights for the trained convolutional neural network can be found at https://github.com/estenhl/pyment-public. Processed tabular data and analysis code are made available at https://github.com/MaxKorbmacher/BBSC_Brain_Age.

Abstract

Variability in brain age predictions complicate the metric's clinical usage, for example, as a (pre-) diagnostic tool. We presented small correlations between age and brain age when repeatedly sampling T1-weighted MRI data from the same individual in a short period of time (1-3 years). Reasons might lay in the absence of maturation effects for the age range in the presented sample, brain age model-bias (including a bimodal or trimodal age training distribution) and model error. We also find evidence for the influence of field strength and scan quality on brain age. Individual differences and the processing of such in the brain age model, might lead to variability in associations between brain age and QC metrics. The presented testing of an established brain age model on multiple single-subject short-timespan retesting data is a stricter test than the usual use-case and does not invalidate MRI group differences. However, intra-individual differences contributing to brain age require further attention in order to advance brain age as a clinical tool.

Background: What is brain age and what is it good for?

Brain age refers to the estimation of a person's age from magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) parameters (Franke & Gaser, 2019). This has been done using either neural networks on 3D data (Leonardsen et al., 2022) or tabular data containing region-averaged metrics (Vidal-Pineiro et al., 2021). Brain age becomes particularly interesting when assuming that lifespan changes in the brain follow normative patterns and that deviations from such patterns might be indicative of disease or disease development (Marquand et al., 2019; Kaufmann et al., 2019). An elevated predicted compared to chronological age in adults may be indicative of psychiatric, neurodegenerative, and neurological disorders (Kaufmann et al., 2019) and poorer health, for example measured by various cardiometabolic risk factors (Beck et al., 2022). Hence, brain age is a promising developing biomarker of general brain health (Franke & Gaser, 2019).

However, revealing connections between brain age and structural and functional brain architecture is needed to fully understand the biological underpinnings of brain age and its potential clinical implications (Vidal-Pineiro et al., 2021). Furthermore, large cross-sectional samples are often used, which could obscure effects of predictive power of brain age by confounders, in particular, differences in MRI acquisition (Jirsaraie et al., 2022). Hence, contributions of individual differences to brain age estimates require a closer examination. With the aim of assessing the effects of automated MRI scan quality control (QC) metrics on brain age predictions, we used a pre-trained deep neural network model (Leonardsen et al., 2022) to predict brain ages from densely sampled T1-weighted MRI data from three individuals (BBSC1-3) scanned in total $N_{BBSC} = 103$ times over a three-year interval (Wang et al., 2022), and an independent data set including one individual

(FTHP1) scanned N_{FTHP} = 557 times over a three-year interval. We first observed within-subject

prediction error and correlations between chronological and predicted age, revealing small, non-

significant correlations and larger prediction errors than previously shown in between-subjects

analyses. We then tested associations of QC metrics on brain age using linear random intercept

models showing potential associations between QC parameters and brain age as well as associations

between acquisition parameters and brain age.

Results and Discussion

Weak correlation between brain age and age

Crude within-subject correlations between age and brain age revealed differing directionalities of

slopes across subjects, with only the FTHP1 correlation being statistically significant (r = 0.38, 95%

CI [0.24; 0.51], p < .001; **Figure 1**).

Figure 1. Intra-individual correlations between brain age and chronological age at 3T for BBSC1-3

and FTHP1

Dot colour was grey, with overlapping dots presented as darker.

This is likely due to the small age range and short inter-scan-intervals, as illustrated by differences

in model-innate error for the different subjects (**Table 1**) compared to error statistics across age

groups (MAE_{test} = 2.47, $MAE_{external}$ = 3.90, as presented in Leonardsen et al., 2022).

Table 1. Age, predicted age, brain age gap (BAG), and prediction error by subject and field strength

Subject	Field Strength	N Observations	Mean Age	SD Age	Mean Prediction	SD Prediction	Mean BAG	SD BAG	MAE	RMSE
BBSC1	3	38	30.66	0.38	28.13	1.25	-2.52	1.20	2.55	2.79
BBSC2	3	40	28.09	0.38	24.37	0.95	-3.72	1.03	3.72	3.85
BBSC3	3	25	40.66	0.28	30.87	1.37	-9.79	1.46	9.79	9.89

FTHP1	3		153	49.86	0.54	45.71	3.70	-4.15	3.52	4.31	5.44
FTHP1	1.5		394	49.64	0.46	48.39	2.52	-1.25	2.54	2.15	2.83

BAG = brain age gap, MAE = mean absolute error, RMSE = root mean squared error. BAG is calculated as the

difference between predicted age and age.

Additionally, the ages of BBSC1-3 fall into some of the least represented parts of the training data age distribution in the underlying model for the brain age predictions (see Leonardsen et al., 2022) which might contribute to explaining some of the prediction differences beyond model error and intra-individual age range across scanning sessions.

Interestingly, we also find systematically underestimated brain ages across subjects (**Figure 1)** with the underestimations being stronger for a field strength of 3T than 1.5T for FTHP1 (**Table 1**). While brain age predictions were closer related with age at 3T MRI ($r_{partial}$= 0.38, 95% CI [0.24, 0.51], $p < .001$) than at 1.5T MRI ($r_{partial}$ = 0.06, 95% CI [-0.04, 0.16], $p = .239$; **Figure 2**), the prediction error was smaller at 1.5T (**Table 1**), with these findings being robust to exclusions of back-to-back repeat scans acquired in the same session without repositioning of the head (**Supplementary Analyses**).

Figure 2. Intra-individual correlations between brain age and chronological age at 1.5T and 3T for FTHP1

Dot colour was grey, with overlapping dots presented as darker.

This emphasises the importance of treating predictions for age groups which are underrepresented in the training sample and differences in field strength with care. In that sense, the observed within-subjects variability associated with acquisition- or scanner-specific effects might be used to estimate the minimum size of true within-subject changes (e.g., due to disease) to be detected with a given

power. Previous findings outlined the influence of scanner site on brain age predictions (Jirsaraie et

al., 2022; Leonardsen et al., 2022). We hence hypothesise that there might be additional reasons for

inaccuracies in brain age predictions caused by factors beyond the characteristics of the brain age

model, in particular scan quality and acquisition parameters.

Scan quality and acquisition: possible reasons for inaccurate brain age predictions?

We used linear random intercept models at the participant level to examine associations of

individual quality control (QC) metrics (see **Materials and methods**) and brain age, while

controlling for age in BBSC1-3. Entropy-focus criterion (EFC, β_{std} = -0.489, p_{Holm} < .001) and the

foreground-background energy ratio (FBER, β_{std} = 0.456, p_{Holm} < .001) were significant predictors of

brain age. In a seperate analysis of FTHP1, scanned at different sites using different scanning

parameters, we included scanner site, field strength, and slice thickness as random factors,

rendering none of the QC metrics significant after correcting for multiple testing (p_{Holm} = 1).

Follow-up analyses in FTHP1 focussed on examining acquisition parameters. We observed

individual fixed effects of field strength, manufacturer and slice thickness in one model each, while

keeping scanner site and the other acquisition parameters as random effects at the level of the

intercept, revealing only significant associations of field strength (β = -1.141, p_{Holm} < .001) with

brain age.

While our findings indicate an association between QC parameters EFC and FBER and brain age in

BBSC1-3 when controlling for age and constant scanning parameters and scanner site, no QC

parameters were significantly associated with brain age after adjustments for multiple comparisons

in FTHP1. Based on that, one could speculate that scan quality impacts brain age predictions when

particpant ages are sampled from under-represented age groups within the prediction model.

Furthermore, QC metrics might be sensitive to individual differences, and vary across scanner sites.

FTHP1 results also suggest a strong effect of field strength on brain age. This indicates overall that

brain age estimates are potentially dependent on intra-individual variables in addition to acquisition

parameters and other scanner site specific covariates.

A potential approach for future brain age modelling could be to employ multiple, more specific

models which are better tuned to individual differences, developmental trajectories, and scan

quality. Such models could for example be trained on data with a smaller age range and a single

field strength. Dependent on these parameters, brain age predictions can then be made by a model

selected based on the available scan and group the individual belongs to.

Materials and Methods

Participants

We used two datasets for the analyses which had received ethics approval with all participants consenting formally previously (Opfer et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). The first dataset was the Bergen Breakfast Scanning Club (BBSC) dataset (Wang et al., 2022), including three male subjects (BBSC2:start-age$_{BBSC2}$ = 27, BBSC1:start-age$_{BBSC1}$ = 30, and BBSC3:start-age$_{BBSC3}$ = 40) who were scanned over the period of circa one year with a summer break in the middle of the scanning period (Wang et al., 2022). This resulted in a total number of N_{BBSC} = 103 scans, relatively equally distributed across subjects (N_{BBSC1} = 38, N_{BBSC2} = 40, N_{BBSC3} = 25). The second dataset was the frequently travelling human phantom (FTHP) MRI dataset (Opfer et al., 2022), including one male subject (FTHP1:start-age$_{FTHP}$ = 48) with 157 imaging sessions at 116 locations, resulting in a total of N_{FTHP} = 557 MRI volumes. Of these, we excluded N = 6 volumes based on errors in the processing pipeline, resulting in a final sample for the main analyses of N_{FTHP} = 551. For quality control (**Supplementary Material**), we removed another N_{FTHP} = 25 volumes which were repeat-sequences run at the same scanner and time without changing head position or acquisition parameters, resulting in a final sample for the supplemental analyses of N_{FTHP} = 526.

Image acquisition and preprocessing

T1-weighted volumes of BBSC1-3 were acquired with a spin echo sequence (TE=2.95ms, TR = 6.88ms, FA = 12°, TI = 450, 188 slices, slice thickness = 1mm, in-plane resolution = 1mm×1mm, FOV = 256mm, isotropic voxel size = 1mm^3) at a 3T GE system with 32-channel head coil. T1-weighted volumes of FTHP1 were acquired at different scanners with various different scanning parameters (see Opfer et al., 2022 or https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/ukeppendorf/frequently-traveling-human-phantom-fthp-dataset). All imaging sites involved in the scanning of FTHP1 were informed that the scan was acquired for the purpose of MRI-based volumetry. Furthermore, all sites were asked to use acquisition parameters in accordance with the ADNI recommendations for MPRAGE MRI for volumetric analyses. Thus, the range of acquisition parameters is representative of MRI-based volumetry in everyday clinical routine at non-academic sites. However, the scan quality might be higher than during average clinical assessments, as only few scans were affected by motion artifacts (relatively young healthy subject). Before prediction, the volumes were skullstripped using Freesurfer (Fischl, 2021), linearly oriented to MNI152 space (6 degrees of freedom) and excess borders were removed. A step-by-step processing tutorial can be found at https://github.com/estenhl/pyment-public.

Brain age estimation

We applied a fully convolutional neural network (Gong et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2021) trained on

53,542 minimally processed magnetic resonance imaging T1-weighted whole-brain images from

individuals aged 3-95 collected at a variety of scanning sites (both 1.5 and 3T field strength),

(details in Leonardsen et al., 2022) to estimate participants' ages directly from the MRI using

Python v3.9.13. The model was tested in both clinical and non-clinical samples (Leonardsen et al.,

2022) and presented high accuracy and test-retest reliability compared to other brain age models

(Dörfel et al., 2023).

Quality control metrics

Quality control (QC) metrics were extracted for each T1-weighted volume by using the automated

MRIQC tool version 22.0.6 (Esteban et al., 2017). Of these metrics, we used those which are

calculated for the whole brain or volume, being **(1)** noise measures: contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR),

signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), coefficient of joint variation of grey and white matter (CJV), **(2)**

measures based on information theory entropy-focus criterion (EFC) and foreground-background

energy ratio (FBER), **(3)** white-matter to maximum intensity (WM2MAX), and **(4)** other measures:

full-width half-maximum (FWHM).

Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using R (v4.1.2). First, correlations of brain age with

chronological age and additionally commonly used error metrics for brain age predictions (mean

absolute error and root mean squared error) were assessed on a participant level. We further

investigated associations between brain age and age in FTHP1 (from the Frequently Travelling

Human Phantom dataset) when partialling out scanner site and field strength, as these were

expected to influence prediction accuracy.

Further analyses focussed on associations between quality control (QC) metrics and brain age as

well as acquisition parameters and brain age. We decided to observe each single independent

variable of interest in a dedicated model, as model diagnostics indicated potential multicollinearity

in models including multiple QC metrics. Furthermore, random effect models were chosen due to

the possibility to account for variances being dependent on different grouping variables, such as ID,

scanner site, field strength, and slice thickness.

Hence, linear random intercept models at the particiapant level were used to examine associations

of individual QC metrics and brain age, while controlling for age for dataset 1, by running one

model for each QC metric. Similarly, for dataset 2, we predicted each QC metric as a fixed effect in

addition to the fixed effect of age in a single model. However, we used different random effects,

namely, scanner site, field strength, and slice thickness, as dataset 2 contained only FTHP1.

We also examined single individual acquisition parameters in dataset 2 / FTHP1 as fixed effects in

addition to the fixed age effect. Those acquisition parameters of interest were field strength,

manufacturer, and slice thickness. Acquisition parameters not used as fixed effects were used as

random effect at the level of the intercept in addition to scanner site. All p-values were adjusted for

multiple testing using Holm correction, marked with p_{Holm}. Standardised β-values (β_{std}) for predictors

were used for comparability across β-weights by scaling QC metrics for each subject individually.

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