Lifestyle and transcriptional signatures associated with ethnicity/race-related variations in the functional connectome

Ziteng Han[1], Kexin Wang[1], Tiantian Liu[1], Yunxiao Ma[2], Guoyuan Yang[1, 3, *],

Tianyi Yan[1, *]

[1]School of Medical Technology, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, China

[2]School of Life Science, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, China

[3]Advanced Research Institute of Multidisciplinary Science, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing, China

*Corresponding authors:

Guoyuan Yang, email: yanggy@bit.edu.cn

Tianyi Yan, email: yantianyi@bit.edu.cn

Author contributions: G.Y., Z.H. and T.Y. designed the study; Z.H. and G.Y. analysed the data; Z.H. wrote the first draft of the manuscript; G.Y., Z.H., K.W., T.L., Y.M., and T.Y. edited the manuscript.

Keywords: neuroimaging, trans-ethnicity/race studies, brain-behaviour relationships, precision neuroscience, transcriptome–neuroimaging associations

Competing interest statement: The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Abstract

Understanding the variation of functional architecture across individuals and populations is fundamental to advancing our knowledge of human health and behaviour. Yet, while functional organization differences related to ethnicity/race are consistently reported, their underlying mechanisms remain poorly understood. Here, we apply precision individualized functional mapping to systematically investigate ethnicity/race-related differences in the brain's intrinsic organization and their associations with lifestyle and transcriptional signatures. We show that variations in network topography and functional connectivity across ethnic/racial groups follow a hierarchical sensorimotor–association axis and are constrained by brain morphology. Importantly, we identify lifestyle factors—particularly education and substance use—that significantly mediate these associations between ethnicity/race and functional connectivity. Leveraging human brain gene expression data, we further demonstrate that cortical transcriptional patterns are spatially aligned with ethnicity/race-related variability in functional connectivity. Gene ontology analyses of associated genes reveal significant enrichment in biological processes such as synaptic signalling and neuronal system development. Together, these findings uncover a multi-layered framework linking ethnicity/race-related differences in brain function to structural constraints, lifestyle influences, and molecular signatures, and advance a more comprehensive and equitable understanding of human brain diversity.

Introduction

As neuroscience strives for greater generalizability, applicability and equity, increasing attention has turned to ethnicity/race-related differences in brain structure and function[1, 2]. These differences are intertwined with variations in human behaviours and psychiatric outcomes[3, 4]. Neuroimaging evidence has consistently shown that that anatomical properties such as cortical thickness[5], curvature[6] and gray matter volume[7, 8] vary significantly across ethnic/racial populations. Beyond structural variation, differences have also been observed in intrinsic cortical activity[9] and connectivity profiles[10, 11]. Precision mapping techniques further reveal that ethnicity/race-related variability in functional network topography is heterogeneously distributed across the cortical mantle[11], aligning with fundamental properties of brain[12]. However, given the complex interplay and decoupling of brain structure and function[13, 14], studies directly examining the associations between trans-population differences in brain structure and function are lacking. The extent to which ethnicity/race-related differences in the intrinsic functional organization can be explained by differences in cortical morphometric features remains to be systematically investigated.

Ethnicity/race is a social construct embedded within cultural, environmental, and genetic contexts[15]. Focusing narrowly on superficial group differences may risks oversimplification, potential bias, and inequitable treatment of specific populations. Instead, a deeper understanding requires identifying the root causes of ethnicity/race-related differences[3, 5, 16, 17]. Prior studies have shown that socioeconomic status strongly influences ethnicity/race differences in health outcomes (e.g., mortality) and treatment-seeking behaviours[18-20], and significantly impact the development of brain structures[21] and neurocognitive abilities[22]. Moreover, exposure to social stressors and negative experiences can contribute to ethnicity/race-related variability in neurology and psychopathology (e.g., ageing and threat response)[5, 23, 24]. Recent epidemiological evidence highlights that unhealthy behavioural factors, such as alcohol dependence and lack of physical activity, pose additional risks for both mental and physical health[25, 26], and can explain ethnicity/race-related health inequities[16]. Nevertheless, it remains poorly understood whether and how comprehensive lifestyle mediates brain functional variability across populations, a gap that hinders our understanding of the origins of ethnicity/race-related variations in human brain organization.

Understanding the molecular correlates of brain-wide phenotypes in vivo is important in neuroscience[27, 28]. The Allen Human Brain Atlas (AHBA), which provides a brain-wide map of

transcriptional activity across thousands of genes, has been instrumental in linking gene expression to neurodevelopment[29], cortical functional hierarchy[30], psychiatric disorders[31, 32], and inter-individual variability[33]. These findings provide valuable insights into the microscale mechanisms that underlie relevant brain circuits. Importantly, recent transcription studies of postmortem brain tissues from African American (AA) individuals have revealed that genetic ancestry influences gene expression in the brain, with both genetic variations and environments contributing to ancestry-associated expression changes[34]. Ancestry-associated differentially expressed genes (DEGs) are primarily enriched in immune-related pathways[34, 35] and linked to the heritability of neurological disorders[34], echoing the observed prevalence differences across populations[36-38]. Despite these advances, it remains largely unknown how ethnicity/race-related multifaceted factors modulate gene expression and the transcriptomic mechanisms underlying ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional organization.

To address these gaps, our study investigates the mechanisms underlying ethnicity/race effects on brain functional connectome from the perspectives of anatomical constraints, lifestyle and environments, and transcription. We leveraged multimodal datasets from the Human Connectome Project (HCP), including the HCP-Young Adult (HCP-YA) and HCP-Development (HCP-D) cohorts, which provide diverse ethnic/racial group data from the U.S. population. Specifically, we **first** utilized the advanced multisession hierarchical Bayesian model (MS-HBM) to delineate the individual-specific functional topography and functional connectome architecture. We then used brain-based predictive modelling and linear regression to demonstrate that ethnicity/race is associated with inter-individual variability in resting-state functional connectivity (RSFC) and brain morphological features. **Second**, we revealed shared predictive network features across ethnicity/race and various lifestyle variables. We also demonstrated that the functional connectivity correlates of ethnicity/race are partially mediated by lifestyle factors. **Finally**, by aligning gene expression patterns with functional connectivity features, we revealed transcriptional mechanisms underlying ethnicity/race variations in brain functional organization. Taken together, our work adheres to the latest theoretical framework for neuroimaging research related to ethnicity/race[15] and provides an integrative framework for understanding how structural, lifestyle, and molecular factors converge to shape population-level variability in the brain function.

Results

We employed two independent large-scale datasets, the HCP-YA and HCP-D datasets, and focused on AA and white American (WA) participants. Quality control process followed a previous study[39]. Afterwards, 101 AA participants and 721 WA participants from the HCP-YA dataset (N = 822; age, 22 to 37 years; 435 females) and 68 AA participants and 404 WA participants from the HCP-D dataset (N = 472; age, 6 to 21 years; 253 females) were included for subsequent analyses. Ethnic/racial groups were categorized based on self-reported information.

Ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional topography and connectome

The MS-HBM, which has been shown to capture the functional organization of individuals precisely, was adopted to generate individual-specific cortical parcellations[40]. In the MS-HBM framework, each cortical region is assumed to exhibit a unique RSFC pattern, and a unified statistical framework is established that accounts for inter-individual RSFC variability, intra-individual RSFC variability and spatial constraints (i.e., encouraging adjacent brain locations with slight changes in RSFC to be assigned the same label) to delineate individualized boundaries under the guidance of group-level parcellation (Schaefer400)[41]. While previous research has characterized individual variability at the level of network topology[42, 43], the MS-HBM offers a deeper level of insight by identifying the fundamental functional units that form these networks within each individual. Resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging (rs-fMRI) data from all valid sessions of each participant were entered as inputs of MS-HBM.

To investigate group-level differences in functional topography, we randomly selected 40 AA and 40 WA demographically matched individuals. Using their individual-level parcellations derived from the MS-HBM, we obtained group-level AA400 and WA400 parcellation maps via a maximum probability fusion approach[44] (**Supplementary Fig. 1**). Similarity analyses, quantified with the Dice coefficient, revealed that parcellation maps from the same ethnicity/race group across different datasets exhibited the highest similarity (**Supplementary Fig. 1**; e.g., AA400 from the HCP-YA dataset compared with AA400 from the HCP-D dataset: 0.844). By contrast, parcellation maps spanning both datasets and ethnicity/race groups exhibited the greatest spatial distinctions (e.g., AA400 from the HCP-YA dataset compared with WA400 from the HCP-D dataset: 0.784). We then assessed the influence of ethnicity/race on individual-level functional topography. Specifically, the similarity of individual-specific parcellation maps between all AA–WA pairs (101×721 in the HCP-

YA dataset and 68×404 in the HCP-D dataset) was calculated and averaged. We observed a non-uniform distribution of variability along the cortex, with the greatest variability in heteromodal association cortices (**Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 2**; e.g., control and dorsal attention networks), and the highest similarity in unimodal sensorimotor cortices (especially in the somatomotor and auditory networks).

The individualized parcellations and group-level Schaefer400 parcellations were then applied to rs-fMRI data to generate RSFC matrices (400 × 400) for each participant separately. For each dataset, AA participants were randomly split into 5 folds, with family structure accounted for, and Hungarian matching was employed to select AA–WA pairs matched on age, sex and root-mean-square framewise displacement (RMS)[39]. To minimize sensitivity to particular data split, the above steps were repeated multiple times until 40 distinct AA splits with matched WA splits emerged. Multivariate kernel ridge regression (KRR) was employed to distinguish between AA and WA individuals, with RSFC matrices as predictors and age, sex, RMS, intracranial volume (ICV), education and income as covariates[39, 45]. Specifically, nested 5-fold cross validation was performed, with all the training folds used to optimize the regularization parameter and the remaining test fold to evaluate model generalizability on unseen data. The above 5-fold cross-validation step was repeated 40 times, and classification accuracy was averaged across folds for each split. In the HCP-YA dataset, our multivariate approach achieved high classification performance, with an accuracy of $85.3\% \pm 2.3\%$ (mean ± standard deviation) using individual-specific parcellations and $77.9\% \pm 2.6\%$ using Schaefer400 parcellations, both significantly exceeding chance levels (both $P < 0.001$). In the HCP-D dataset, model performance decreased slightly but remained significantly above chance (both $P < 0.001$), with accuracies of $81.7\% \pm 5.0\%$ for individual-specific parcellations and $62.5\% \pm 5.1\%$ for Schaefer400 parcellations. These results emphasize the importance of treating individual-specific topographic features as phenotypes and highlight the robust ethnicity/race-related variability in functional topography and functional connectivity patterns.

To interpret the network features learned by the model, the regression models were inverted using Haufe's transform, yielding prediction feature matrices[46]. **Figs. 1b and Supplementary Fig. 3** show the averaged pairwise region-level feature weights at the network level, indicating that ethnicity/race-associated functional connections constitute a distributed set of large-scale network circuits. The most prominent links were observed between the default and attentional networks, within the default networks, and within the sensorimotor networks for both datasets. Moreover, to

quantify regional contributions, average feature weights of cortical regions were calculated (**Fig. 1c**

and Supplementary Fig. 3). We found that discriminating features derived from the HCP-YA and

HCP-D datasets exhibited high generalizability and significant spatial correlations (**Fig. 1d;** $r = 0.73$,

$P_{spin} < 0.001$). Across both datasets, contribution weights followed a hierarchical distribution across

the cortex, with opposite contributions between heteromodal cortices and unimodal cortices. This

hierarchical layout, reflecting diverse neurobiological properties, corresponds to the well-established

cortical sensorimotor–association (S–A) axis[47]. Using spatial permutation testing, we confirmed

that the contribution of cortical regions to ethnicity/race prediction were aligned with the S–A axis

(**Fig. 1e**; $r = 0.82$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$).

Fig. 1 Functional topography and functional connectivity are associated with ethnicity/race. a, The

average similarity of individual-specific parcellations across all the AA–WA pairs revealed that

ethnicity/race-related topographic variability was greatest in heteromodal association cortices and lowest in

the unimodal sensorimotor cortices. Brain maps were generated using the Schaefer400 parcellations[41] and

visualized with the R package ggseg[48]. **b**, Kernel ridge regression (KRR) models were trained using resting-

state functional connectivity (RSFC), while controlling for age, sex, root-mean-square framewise

displacement (RMS), intracranial volume (ICV), education and income to predict individuals' self-reported

ethnicity/race. Haufe-transformed regional pairwise feature weights were averaged to the network level based on the Yeo networks. Connections between default and attention networks, as well as within default networks and sensorimotor networks, contributed most to the prediction in both datasets. For visualization, actual values were subjected to Z score standardization. **c,** Haufe-transformed weights of each brain region were averaged to generate ethnicity/race-predictive weight maps. **d,** RSFC-based ethnicity/race prediction was performed in both the discovery HCP-YA dataset and the replication HCP-D dataset. Predictive weights were highly reproducible across the two independent datasets ($r = 0.73$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$). **e,** Ethnicity/race-predictive weight distributions were significantly correlated with the S–A axis ranks ($r = 0.82$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$).

Ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional connectome is constrained by the fundamental properties of brain organization

The spatial and physical patterns of brain anatomy are known to constrain neural dynamics[13]. Thus, we next examined whether ethnicity/race-related variability in functional connectivity could be explained by the corresponding variability in cortical morphology. To this end, we constructed a morphometric similarity network (MSN) for each individual, which integrates multiple structural MRI features (Z scores) into a biologically meaningful and behaviourally relevant connectome (400×400)[49]. Correlation weights were averaged across rows and within groups to generate group-level regional MSN values (**Fig. 2a**). To assess ethnicity/race-related variability in brain morphology, linear regression models (LRMs) were applied while controlling for age, sex, RMS, ICV, education level and income[39]. We observed significant ethnicity/race-related variations in morphometric similarity patterns across the cortex (**Fig. 2b and Supplementary Fig. 4**), especially in the insula, prefrontal cortex, cuneus and lateral occipital cortex. Importantly, this variability was highly reproducible across datasets (**Fig. 2c**; $r = 0.59$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$). Moreover, the MSN t-map was positively associated with the RSFC-based ethnicity/race predictive weights (**Figs. 2d**; $r = 0.41$, $P_{spin} = 0.012$), indicating that brain regions contributing more to RSFC-based predictions also exhibited greater ethnicity/race-related variability in cortical morphology.

Beyond the MSN, we considered other fundamental properties of brain organization. Intracortical myelination, a microstructural marker of neuronal fibres that influences processing efficiency in the nervous system[50, 51], was estimated from the ratio of T1-weighted to T2-weighted images, where higher values reflect greater myelination. Across the cortex, predictive weight maps were inversely related to the cortical myelin content (**Supplementary Fig. 5**; $r = -0.57$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$). Together, these results demonstrate that ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional connectivity is tightly linked to fundamental structural properties of brain organization.

Fig. 2 Ethnicity/race-related variability in functional connectivity profiles aligns with ethnicity/race-related variations in cortical morphometry. a, The cortical distribution of mean regional morphometric similarity network (MSN) values was examined, reflecting inter-regional similarity across multiple MRI-derived morphometric features (i.e., cortical thickness, gray matter volume, surface area, Gaussian curvature and mean curvature). Brain maps were generated using the Schaefer400 parcellations[41] and visualized with the R package ggseg[48]. **b,** Comparison (*t*-map) of regional MSNs across ethnic/racial groups was performed. Linear regression models (LRMs) were fitted to estimate the ethnicity/race-related variations in the MSN, controlling for age, sex, RMS, ICV, education and income. False discovery rate (FDR) correction with $P < 0.05$ for multiple comparisons across 400 regions identified significant ethnicity/race-related effects on cortical morphometry. **c,** The *t*-map for regional MSN differences was highly reproducible across the two datasets ($r = 0.59$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$). **d,** Ethnicity/race-related variability in cortical morphometric similarity accounted for parts of the variance in ethnicity/race-relevant variability in functional connectivity profiles ($r = 0.41$, $P_{spin} = 0.012$).

Lifestyle influences ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional connectome

Lifestyle factors, including education, income, alcohol consumption, smoking, sleep, physical activity, and social connection, have been shown to influence brain structure and function[52-55]. Having revealed the ethnicity/race-related variability in RSFC architecture, we next sought to

investigate the role of these lifestyle factors in explaining this variability. Specifically, our goal was to identify the shared brain-network features that are associated with both ethnicity/race and various lifestyle factors. We selected 6 lifestyle factors (i.e., education, income, substance use, sleep, physical activity, and social relationships) from the HCP-YA dataset and we did not conduct the subsequent analysis for the HCP-D dataset as the majority of lifestyle data were only available for a subset of participants (e.g., those under age 17), which would substantially reduce the AA sample size. We found that several lifestyle factors were significantly associated with ethnicity/race categories in the HCP-YA dataset: education ($r = -0.15$, $P < 0.001$), income ($r = -0.23$, $P < 0.001$), substance use ($r = -0.08$, $P < 0.05$), sleep ($r = 0.11$, $P < 0.01$), physical activity ($r = -0.18$, $P < 0.001$) and social relationships ($r = -0.08$, $P < 0.05$).

Furthermore, all the HCP-YA participants were randomly split into 15 folds, with the constraint that participants from the same family were kept together in the same fold. To minimize sensitivity to any particular data split, this procedure was repeated 40 times. Using KRR models, we showed that all these factors could be predicted significantly above chance from RSFC matrices, with prediction accuracies of 0.19 ± 0.01 for education, 0.11 ± 0.01 for income, 0.19 ± 0.01 for substance use, 0.09 ± 0.01 for sleep, 0.08 ± 0.01 for physical activity and 0.07 ± 0.01 for social relationships (**Fig. 3a;** Pearson's coefficient was employed as a prediction performance metric). Moreover, we examined the similarity of Haufe-transformed predictive-network features underlying ethnicity/race and each lifestyle factor. Strong correlations were observed for education ($r = -0.55$), income ($r = -0.57$), substance use ($r = -0.34$), sleep ($r = 0.36$) and physical activity ($r = -0.38$), but not for social relationships ($r = 0.05$; **Fig. 3b**). Predictive-network feature matrices for all the lifestyle factors are shown in **Supplementary Fig. 6.** Finally, by leveraging data capturing the impacts of neighbourhood-level socioeconomic environments on intrinsic brain activity reported by Sydnor et al.[47], we demonstrated that the observed ethnicity/race-related variability aligns with brain–environment associations across the cortical mantle (**Fig. 3c**; $r = 0.57$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$ in the HCP-YA dataset; $r = 0.41$, $P_{spin} = 0.002$ in the HCP-D dataset), suggesting ethnicity/race-by-environment interaction effects that shape brain functional organization.

Next, we fitted a structural equation model (SEM) for each lifestyle factor to analyse the relationships among ethnicity/race group, lifestyle and brain functional organization (represented by the principal functional gradient), while controlling for age, sex, RMS, ICV, education and income (**Fig. 3d**). The principal functional gradient captures the dominant patterns of cortical variability in functional connectivity, offering a simplified, low-dimensional representation of brain functional

organization in a hierarchical manner[56]. The regression coefficients in the converged SEM suggested that ethnicity/race category was a significant predictor for education (β = -0.473, P_{FDR} < 0.001), income (β = -0.688, P_{FDR} < 0.001), substance use (β = -0.353, P_{FDR} < 0.001) and physical activity (β = -0.248, P_{FDR} = 0.025). In turn, education (β = 0.090, P_{FDR} = 0.023), substance use (β = 0.085, P_{FDR} = 0.018) and physical activity (β = 0.080, P_{FDR} = 0.025) were significant predictors for brain function, indexed by the first principal gradient of the RSFC profiles. Mediation analyses further revealed that education (mediation proportion = 14.57%, P_{FDR} < 0.05) and substance use (mediation proportion = -8.07%, P_{FDR} < 0.05) significantly mediated the associations between ethnicity/race category and brain function. Other mediation effects, including income (P_{FDR} = 0.784), physical activity (P_{FDR} = 0.115), sleep (P_{FDR} = 0.140) and social relationships (P_{FDR} = 0.673), were not statistically significant after false discovery rate (FDR) correction.

Fig. 3 Lifestyle factors mediate the associations between ethnicity/race and brain functional connectivity. a, Mean prediction accuracies for lifestyle factors. Asterisks indicate above-chance predictions ($P < 0.05$), determined by comparing true accuracy with 1,000 permuted null models. Violin plots display accuracy distributions across 40 replications. For each violin plot, width represents the density of the accuracy values, and the central box shows the interquartile range and median. **b,** Correlations of predictive feature matrices between ethnicity/race and lifestyle factors, indicating shared brain-network features underlying both ethnicity/race and lifestyle predictions. **c,** Functional connectivity-based ethnicity/race predictive features were significantly associated with effects of neighbourhood socioeconomic conditions on the intrinsic brain activity (HCP-YA dataset: $r = 0.57$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$; HCP-D dataset: $r = 0.41$, $P_{spin} = 0.002$). **d,** A structural equation model was fitted for each lifestyle factor, thereby revealing the relationships between ethnicity/race, lifestyle and brain functional organization, while controlling for age, sex, RMS, ICV, education and income. Edges represent regression coefficients (β values), with thickness proportional to their absolute magnitude. Significant links (FDR-corrected $P < 0.05$, two-sided) are shown as solid lines; non-significant links as dashed lines. Mediation analysis revealed that education (absolute mediation proportion = 14.57%) and substance use (absolute mediation proportion = 8.07%) significantly mediated the relationship between ethnicity/race and brain functional organization (FDR-corrected $P < 0.05$). **e,** Threshold β-maps from linear regression models (LRMs), showing statistically significant ($P_{FDR} < 0.05$) ethnicity/race–education and ethnicity/race–substance use interaction effects on the brain functional organization.

Given the mediating roles of education and substance use, we further investigated how their interactions with ethnicity/race influence brain functional organization across the cortical mantle using LRMs (**Fig. 3e**). We identified 91 cortical regions significantly modulated by ethnicity/race–education interactions, primarily located in the insula, superior temporal, inferior parietal and superior frontal regions. Additionally, 78 cortical regions were significantly influenced by ethnicity/race–substance use interactions, including regions in the insula, superior temporal, rostral middle frontal, and superior frontal cortices.

Cortical gene expression related to ethnicity/race-induced variability in brain functional connectome

After demonstrating the influence of lifestyle factors on ethnicity/race-related variability in RSFC profiles, we next aimed to identify the transcriptional signatures associated with this variability. Brain-wide gene expression data were obtained from the AHBA (http://human.brain-map.org)[57, 58] and mapped into 400 region-level parcellations (400 regions × 15,632 genes) derived from the original 3,702 distinct microarray samples. Using partial least squares (PLS) regression[59], an advanced approach for uncovering fundamental relationships between two high-dimensional matrices, we identified weighted cortical gene expression patterns that aligned with the spatial distribution of ethnicity/race predictive features. The first component (PLS1), which explained the

largest proportion of variance, accounted for 40.3% (P_{perm} < 0.001) of the response variance in the HCP-YA dataset and 22.9% (P_{perm} < 0.001) in the HCP-D dataset.

Fig. 4 Gene expression profiles associated with ethnicity/race-related variability in functional connectivity. a, Weighted cortical gene expression map of the regional PLS1 scores (top panel). Scatterplot showing the relationship between the PLS1 map and the Haufe-transformed predictive weight map (bottom panel, $r = 0.65$, P_{spin} < 0.001). Brain maps were generated using the Schaefer400 parcellations[41] and visualized with the R package ggseg[48]. **b,** Genes were ranked on the basis of their loadings on PLS1. **c,** The PLS+ genes overlapped with ancestry-associated differentially expressed genes (DEGs) reported by Benjamin et al[34]. **d,** Representative enriched terms of the PLS1+ genes, highlighting GO biological processes related to synaptic signalling, as well as Reactome gene sets associated with the nervous system. Circle size denotes the number of genes within a given ontology term, and multi-test FDR-adjusted P values are plotted as log10-

transformed values. **e,** Metascape network plot of enriched terms, capturing intra-cluster and inter-cluster
similarity relationships. Each term is represented by a circle, coloured by cluster identity and scaled
proportional to the number of genes involved.

We found that the PLS1-weighted maps revealed an anterior-to-posterior hierarchy pattern along the
cortex, which was remarkably consistent across the two datasets ($r = 0.99$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$). Moreover,
PLS1 gene expression weights were strongly correlated with the ethnicity/race predictive weights
(**Fig. 4a**; $r = 0.65$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$), suggesting that genes with higher positive (or negative) weights on
PLS1 tend to be overexpressed in regions showing corresponding positive (or negative)
ethnicity/race predictive weights. We then ranked the genes based on normalized PLS1 weights and
selected those with the top 2,000 positive weights ($Z > 6.7$ in the HCP-YA dataset and $Z > 4.5$ in the
HCP-D dataset), denoted as the PLS+ gene sets, as well as the top 2,000 negative weights ($Z < -6.5$
in the HCP-YA dataset and $Z < -4.6$ in the HCP-D dataset), denoted as the PLS- gene sets (**Fig. 4b**
and Supplementary Fig. 7).

We next conducted an external validation by comparing our PLS1 gene set with the genetic ancestry-
associated DEGs identified from RNA sequencing data of postmortem brain tissue[34]. Among the
1,701 DEGs, only 358 (~21.0%) overlapped with the PLS1 genes in the HCP-YA dataset, 358
(~21.0%) overlapped in the HCP-D dataset, and 309 (~18.2%) overlapped in both datasets (**Fig. 4c**
and Supplementary Fig. 7). Given that ancestry-related gene expression is primarily driven by
genetic variations (explaining ~60% of the changes) rather than the environments (~15%)[34], this
limited overlap between the MRI-derived PLS1 genes and ancestry DEGs suggests that the
transcriptional changes associated with self-reported ethnicity/race are largely distinct from those
driven by genetic ancestry. One plausible explanation for this distinction is that the MRI-derived
PLS1 gene signature is more strongly associated with environmental and lifestyle factors. Delving
into the overlapping genes, ARHGAP28, which encodes the Rho GTPase-activating protein[60, 61],
exhibited the strongest positive correlation with ethnicity/race predictive weights (**Fig. 4c**; $r = 0.59$,
$P_{spin} < 0.001$). In contrast, MICB, which encodes ligands for the natural killer cell-activating receptor
NKG2D[62], exhibited the strongest negative correlation (**Fig. 4c**; $r = -0.64$, $P_{spin} < 0.001$).

To further interpret the PLS- and PLS+ gene sets, we conducted gene enrichment analysis to
characterize the enriched biological functions and pathways using Metascape[63]. After employing
Benjamini–Hochberg correction for multiple hypothesis testing and discarding discrete enriched
clusters, the remaining significantly enriched terms of the PLS+ genes were rendered into a network
(**Figs. 4d–e and Supplementary Figs. 7**), including gene ontology (GO) biological processes, such

as "modulation of chemical synaptic transmission" and "synaptic signalling", as well as Reactome gene sets, such as "neuronal system", "signalling by GPCR" and "nervous system development". The PLS1- genes were enriched for GO biological processes, such as "metal ion transport" and "potassium ion transmembrane transport", as well as Reactome pathways, including "neuronal system" and "transport of small molecules" (**Supplementary Fig. 8**). Collectively, these results highlight the distinct functional roles of genes with positive versus negative weights on PLS1.

We further assessed the reproducibility of transcriptional enrichment associated with ethnicity/race-related functional connectivity features. Specifically, we conducted a multi-gene list meta-analysis of PLS1 genes (combining the PLS+ and PLS- genes) across the HCP-YA and HCP-D datasets. The gene lists in these two independent datasets showed substantial overlap, with an odds ratio of 271.88 (**Supplementary Fig. 9,** $P < 0.001$). After statistical correction, the surviving ontological terms were highly shared across both gene lists, and the resulting network demonstrated significant concordance with the discovery enrichment results (**Supplementary Figs. 9**).

Discussion

In this study, we presented a multi-layered framework for understanding ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional organization. Using multimodal HCP datasets and precision individualized parcellation, we showed that hierarchical connectivity patterns from sensorimotor to association cortices predict ethnicity/race and align with structural variations across populations. Furthermore, we observed that the shared brain-network features served as predictors for both ethnicity/race and various lifestyle factors, with education and substance use substantially mediating the associations between ethnicity/race and brain connectivity. We also characterized the transcriptomic architectures underlying the observed ethnicity/race-related variability, thereby providing biological microscale insights into the macroscale properties. Notably, the reproducibility across two large cohorts underscores the robustness of our findings and echoes recent calls for reproducible neuroscience research. Overall, our study integrates structural, behavioural, and molecular dimensions to understand the human brain diversity and contributes to a more generalizable and equitable neuroscience.

Both the spatial configuration of functional regions and the coupling strength between regions are important drivers of variability in functional organization, which is closely linked to non-imaging measures of behavioural and lifestyle measures[64]. Here, we observed that both functional

topography and connectivity are associated with individuals' ethnicity/race. First, spatial variation in functional topography across ethnicity/race groups was greater in heteromodal association cortices than in unimodal sensorimotor cortices. This finding extends previous findings showing that association networks exhibit the greatest variations in functional topography across age windows[65], sex[66], and cultural populations[12]. Second, multivariate patterns of brain-ethnicity/race associations were inversely driven by the connectivity profiles of higher-order association regions versus modality-specific regions, indicating that ethnicity/race-related sociodemographic factors exert widespread and opposite effects on the two poles of the S–A axis[47]. Additionally, ethnicity/race-related differences in functional connectivity profiles were closely aligned with variations in morphometric similarity across groups. This suggests that functional connectivity differences associated with ethnicity/race are constrained by brain morphology, conforming with the well-established concept of cortical structural constraints on intrinsic neuronal activity[13, 67]. These findings further support the homophilic principle of brain organization, which posits that brain regions with similar functional characteristics are more likely to share similarities across multiple biological domains and to be connected via white matter tracts[68].

Given the multidimensional properties of ethnicity/race, a comprehensive perspective is needed to link ethnic/racial diversity with the hierarchical functional organization of the brain[39]. Recent compelling evidence demonstrates that children's neighbourhood environments exert opposing effects on the fluctuation amplitude of intrinsic activity within the sensorimotor and association cortices[47]. Socioeconomically disadvantageous environments diminish the differentiation of the S–A hierarchy[47]. In this study, we demonstrated that these environmental effects are spatially aligned with ethnicity/race-related variability, suggesting an overlap between ethnicity/race and various socioenvironmental factors. Moreover, it is well-established that environmental and lifestyle factors can shape both brain structure and function[54, 55, 69]. Building on this, our findings reveal shared functional network features underlie both lifestyle factors and ethnicity/race. Specifically, connections between the control and somatomotor networks, between the default and ventral attention networks, and within the somatomotor network were strongly associated with both education level and ethnicity/race. In addition, connections within the default networks, between the default and dorsal attention networks, and between the default and ventral attention networks were robustly predictive for both the substance use experience and ethnicity/race. Indeed, behaviour prediction models may capture broad behaviour dimensions within a given behavioural domain rather than the specific traits they are trained on, such as the g factor in the case of cognition and the

p factor in the case of mental health[45]. Thus, the observed similarity of predictive network features

suggests that the ethnicity/race variable and lifestyle factors may be supported by shared underlying

meta-factors[70].

Moreover, we found that lifestyle factors—particularly education and substance use—significantly

mediated the associations between functional connectivity profiles and ethnicity/race. This is

particularly relevant as prior studies have shown that educational attainment and rates of substance

use (especially marijuana and alcohol) differ across ethnic/racial populations[16, 71-73]. The

principal functional gradient of regions located in the insula, ventral sensory/motor cortex and

prefrontal cortex was significantly influenced by the interactions between ethnicity/race and

education, as well as by the interactions between ethnicity/race and substance use. These regions

serve as crucial control hubs of top-down information processing[74] and overlap with circuits

implicated in emotional regulation and threat responses[75, 76]. Moreover, both education and

substance use are important components in pathways linking the environment and health status[55].

Educational background is often linked to cognitive reserves[77]. Higher levels of education may

enhance brain's flexibility and adaptability during task processing and decision-making[78, 79], and

protect neurogenerative risks[80, 81] in later life. Excessive substance use alters the neurobiology of

reward processing, control dynamics and emotion regulation[82-84] and is associated with

psychiatric conditions, particularly depression symptoms, and reduced quality of life[85-88].

Together, fully accounting for socioenvironmental disadvantages of specific populations is essential

for interpreting neuroimaging-derived differences across populations and for developing more

generalizable interventions. Finally, although the lifestyle factors analysed here were relatively

coarse, they explained nearly one-quarter of the observed ethnicity/race-related variability,

underscoring the need for future work to incorporate more comprehensive measures of lifestyle (e.g.,

access to healthcare) and neighbourhood-level environment (e.g., population density or percentage of

residents living in poverty) to more fully elucidate ethnicity/race-related variability in brain

organization and brain–behaviour relationships and to promote equitable translation of neuroscience

findings.

After linking functional network properties to transcriptomic data, we identified a set of genes

(PLS1) whose weighted cortical expression patterns were significantly correlated with ethnicity/race-

related variability in functional connectivity. The PLS1 gene expression map revealed high

expression in the primary visual, anterior cingulate, and insular cortex, following the global cortical

hierarchy of the brain. Gene-to-function annotation analysis revealed that these genes formed a topologically clustered network enriched for several GO biological processes and Reactome pathways in both the HCP-YA and HCP-D cohorts. The identified GO terms were primarily related to synaptic signalling and the modulation of chemical synaptic transmission, which underpin inter-neuronal communication in the nervous system[89]. This enrichment is consistent with prior reports of population differences in gene expression associated with axon guidance and synaptic signalling pathways[35]. The identified Reactome pathways included the neuronal system and its development, which encompass neuronal progenitor cell proliferation, migration, differentiation, synaptogenesis, and synaptic pruning—all fundamental for establishing a mature and integrated neural system[90, 91]. Importantly, many of these neurodevelopment-related pathways are influenced by environmental and lifestyle factors, such as socioeconomic status[92], alcohol consumption[93], early-life stress[94] and physical activity[95, 96]. Another key Reactome pathway involved G protein-coupled receptor signalling, which regulates cellular responses to hormones, neurotransmitters, and external environmental stimulants[97]. Overall, our findings bridge the gap between ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional organization and the underlying transcriptional programs, highlighting synaptic and neurodevelopmental pathways as central mechanisms.

Several limitations of the current study should be considered when interpreting our findings. First, we relied on correlation analyses to describe relationships between functional and structural differences across ethnicity/race groups. Future research employing causal modelling techniques is necessary to elucidate the underlying causal architecture of these associations. Second, the generalizability of our findings is constrained by the nature of the datasets used. Our population sample was limited to self-identified WA and AA participants, without accounting for the cultural and geographical factors that may influence the brain. This makes it challenging to generalize our conclusions across the full spectrum of ethnicity/race populations. Third, by using two independent cross-sectional cohorts (HCP-YA and HCP-D) that differ in scanner protocols, we were unable to explicitly model developmental trajectories of ethnicity/race-related differences. Longitudinal datasets, such as the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study, are needed to investigate how these brain-wide associations evolve across developmental stages. Fourth, the transcriptome-neuroimaging associations are limited by the small, demographically skewed sample (a sample of six donors—one Hispanic, two AA, three Caucasian—only two of whom provided data for the right hemisphere) of the AHBA gene expression dataset. Future work should move towards

integrating individual-level genetic data with more comprehensive, longitudinal characterizations of

lifestyle and environmental exposures.

Despite these limitations, our study provides a multi-layered perspective for understanding

ethnicity/race-related influences on brain functional organization by weaving evidence from

structural constraints, lifestyle factors, and transcriptomic signatures. By integrating these

dimensions, we move beyond simplistic explanations of population-level brain differences and

highlight the multidimensional nature of ethnicity/race. Ultimately, our findings advocate for a

fundamental shift in perspective: from treating ethnicity/race as a simple causal variable to

conceptualizing it as a complex construct whose effects on the brain are deeply entangled with a

confluence of biological and environmental influences.

Methods

Datasets. This study utilized two publicly available datasets from the HCP: the HCP-YA and HCP-D

datasets. The HCP-YA participants (N = 822; age: 22-37 years) were part of the HCP S1200

release[98] and matched the HCP subset used by Li et al[39]. rs-fMRI data were acquired during two

sessions using a multiband sequence (voxel dimension: 2.0 mm isotropic; repetition time: 0.72 s) on

a customized Siemens 3-T Skyra at Washington University in St. Louis. Each session comprised two

runs with opposite phase-encoding directions, and the duration of each run was approximately 14.4

minutes. Structural images were acquired for each participant with a resolution of 0.7 mm isotropic.

Family structures and self-reported ethnicity/race information were carefully considered in

subsequent processing. HCP-D participants (N = 472; age: 6-21 years) were obtained from the

lifespan HCP release 2.0[99]. For participants 8 years and older, rs-fMRI data were acquired during

two sessions using a multiband sequence (voxel dimension: 2.0 mm isotropic) on a 3T Siemens

Prisma scanner. Each session encompassed two runs with opposite phase-encoding directions, and

the duration of each run was approximately 6.5 minutes. For the youngest participants (5-7 years),

the total duration of rs-fMRI scanning was reduced to 21 min. Informed consent was obtained from

all participants aged 18 and older; for participants younger than 18, informed permission was

provided by their parents. Both the HCP-YA and HCP-D datasets were approved by the Institutional

Review Board (IRB) at Washington University in St. Louis. Additional details of the data collection

process and behavioural measures can be found elsewhere. All procedures in this study were

conducted following the applicable guidelines and regulations, with approval from the IRB at the

Beijing Institute of Technology.

Image acquisition and processing. ICA-FIX denoised rs-fMRI data, which had undergone the minimal preprocessing steps of the HCP, were employed[100]. To improve the behavioural prediction performance, additional motion censoring and global signal regression were performed following the procedure described by Li et al[39]. Specifically, volumes with an RMS exceeding 0.2 mm were marked as censored frames. Frames immediately preceding and the two frames following these volumes, as well as any previously uncensored segments shorter than five volumes, were also marked as censored frames. Rs-fMRI runs were discarded if more than half of the frames were marked as censored. Next, the signal of the remaining uncensored frames was averaged across the cortical vertices to generate the global signal. The global signal and its first temporal derivative were regressed out from the original time courses.

Defining individual-specific cortical parcellations and the functional connectome. The gradient MS-HBM approach was employed to define individual-specific cortical parcellations for each participant (https://github.com/ThomasYeoLab/CBIG/tree/master/stable_projects/brain_parcellation/Kong2022_ArealMSHBM)[40]. The steps of the MS-HBM approach are as follows: (i) The Connectome Workbench (https://github.com/Washington-University/workbench) is used to compute each individual's diffusion embedding matrices for gradients; (ii) connectivity profiles for each seed region, initialization parameters and a probability spatial mask are generated; (iii) group-level priors are estimated for each ethnicity/race group on the basis of the Schaefer400 parcellations[41] and 40 independent participants; and (iv) Bayesian model estimation is performed for the generation of individual-level parcellations. The mathematical details of the MS-HBM approach are described elsewhere[40]. Both individualized and Schaefer400 parcellations were then used to compute the RSFC matrices. The vertex-wise time series, excluding the censored frames, were averaged across all the regions of interest (ROIs). For each run, the RSFC matrix was obtained across 400 regions using Pearson's correlation analysis. The RSFC matrices were then Fisher z-transformed and averaged across runs, yielding two final 400 × 400 RSFC matrices for each participant.

Predictive modelling. Predictive modelling was based on two distinct cross-validation procedures. For the ethnicity/race prediction, AA participants within each of the HCP-YA and HCP-D datasets were randomly split into 5 folds, and participants from the same family were kept together in the same fold. Hungarian matching was then applied to select demographically matched AA–WA pairs based on age, sex and RMS within each fold[12, 39]. For the lifestyle factor prediction, all HCP-YA

participants were randomly split into 15 folds, with the family structure was taken care of. To ensure

the generalizability of our findings, the entire data splitting and matching process for both tasks was

repeated 40 times.

Following these data preparation steps, we applied 5-fold cross-validated KRR models to predict

ethnicity/race and 15-fold cross-validated KRR models to predict various lifestyle factors

(**Supplementary Table 1**). KRR models perform the prediction for test participants by leveraging

the similarity of their RSFC patterns to those of the training participants. Specifically, the prediction

for a given test participant was calculated as the weighted average of the behavioural scores from all

training participants, where the weights were determined by the Pearson's correlation between the

vectorized RSFC matrices of the test participants and each training participant. For each test fold,

kernel regression parameters were estimated using data from the four training folds. The optimal $l2$

regularization parameter (λ) was selected through an inner 5-fold (or 15-fold) cross-validation

performed exclusively on the training data. All the determined parameters were subsequently used to

make predictions for participants in the test set. To mitigate the potential sensitivity to data splitting

variations, the entire cross-validation process was repeated 40 times. Additionally, for each lifestyle

factor, a composite score was generated before model training. This was achieved by Z-normalizing

all related measures across participants and then averaging them for each individual. When variables

other than education and income were predicted, age, sex, RMS, ICV, education, and income were

included as covariates. In contrast, when predicting education and income, only age, sex, RMS, and

ICV were included as covariates and regressed out from the RSFC.

For the ethnicity/race prediction models, accuracy of each test set was defined as the proportion of

correctly predicted samples to the total number of samples. For the lifestyle factor prediction models,

the accuracy of each test set was determined using Pearson's correlation between the predicted and

actual scores. The accuracy measures were averaged across all the folds for each data split, yielding

40 final prediction accuracy values. To evaluate the prediction significance, a corresponding set of

null models was generated for each predictive model. Specifically, the output variable was permuted

1,000 times. For each permutation, a null model was trained and tested following the same

procedures applied to the original model. The significance (P value) of each model was defined as

the proportion of null models whose prediction accuracies exceed those of the true models.

Predictive feature weights. The Haufe transformation was used to interpret the brain–behaviour

relationships learned by the prediction models[46]. For each training fold, Haufe-transformed feature

weights were calculated as the covariance between the input features ($RSFC_{train}$) and the output

predicted scores (y'_{train}). The feature weight matrices were averaged across the 40 splits to obtain the

final importance measures (400 × 400), reflecting the contribution of each edge to the prediction. We

subsequently summarized the pairwise Haufe-transformed weights to the network level (17 × 17). In

addition, regional importance was calculated by averaging these weights for each of the 400 regions

(400 × 1). In this study, we preserved the original positive and negative signs of the feature weights

rather than taking their absolute values[101].

Morphometric similarity analysis. The Scharfer400 parcellation was transformed into the T1w

surface space of each participant, and five morphometric features were extracted from the

participant's T1w images for each region, including cortical thickness, gray matter volume, surface

area, Gaussian curvature and mean curvature[32]. For each participant, each morphometric feature

was subjected to Z-normalization across regions, and a feature vector (5 × 1) was created for each

region. Pearson's correlation analysis was then employed to estimate the morphometric similarity

between cortical regions, yielding a pairwise MSN (400 × 400) for each participant. The full MSN

matrices were then averaged across rows to generate a regional MSN map.

To visualize the spatial pattern of the MSN across the cortex, the regional MSN maps were averaged

across participants within each ethnicity/race group. To examine the ethnicity/race-related variations

in the MSN, an LRM was fitted for each region. These models used the regional MSN value as the

response variable and included age, sex, RMS, ICV, education and income as covariates. Weights

were applied to account for differences in group sizes, with each participant assigned a weight equal

to the reciprocal of the size of their corresponding group. Two-sided t statistics were extracted from

the LRMs, and significance was determined at $P < 0.05$ with the application of FDR correction for

multiple comparisons across the 400 regions to control for Type I errors.

Structural equation modelling. The *lavaan* package (version 0.6.18) in R was used to fit a SEM for

each lifestyle factor and estimate the regression coefficients for each path while controlling for age,

sex, RMS and ICV[54, 55]. The complete model equations are provided in the Supplementary

Materials. The latent variable for brain function was derived from the participants' principal

functional gradient. In this study, we applied principal component analysis (PCA) to the RSFC

matrix of each participant for dimensionality reduction, and the resulting first principal component

was identified as the principal functional gradient. The latent variable for brain function was

subsequently constructed from the Z-normalized gradient values of the top 15 cortical regions that

were most significantly correlated with each lifestyle factor[54]. Before being entered into the

model, we subjected the RMS, ICV and lifestyle factors to Z-normalization to avoid scale effects and

facilitate coefficient comparisons across models. The P value for each path was calculated by

dividing the estimated parameter by its robust standard error (SE) and then testing the null

hypothesis that the parameter equals zero. The P values of all paths within each SEM were then

subjected to FDR correction to account for multiple comparisons. We further calculated the

mediation effects (a*b) of each lifestyle factor and the proportion of ethnicity/race-related variability

mediated by the lifestyle factors (a*b/(a*b+c)). FDR correction was further controlled at 0.05 across

all the mediation effects, direct effects and total effects tested.

Interaction effects modelling. To examine how the ethnicity/race-related variability in brain

connectivity is moderated by the education level and substance use status of participants, we fitted

two LRMs for each region. These models controlled for age, sex, RMS and ICV and included an

interaction term between ethnicity/race and either education or substance use[102]. The response

terms of these models were the regional principal functional gradient value, defined as the principal

components derived from the RSFC matrix dimensionality reduction using PCA. Moreover, two-

sided t statistics for the interaction terms were extracted from the LRMs, and significance was

determined at $P < 0.05$, with the application of FDR correction for multiple comparisons across 400

regions to prevent Type I errors. The complete model equations are provided in the Supplementary

Materials.

Transcriptomic analysis. We utilized gene expression data from the AHBA dataset, derived from

six postmortem brains (age: 24 to 57 years; 1 female) and comprising 3702 spatially distinct samples.

The preprocessing steps were performed according to the approach of Markello et al.[103]. These

steps are as follows: (i) probe-to-gene annotations were first updated, followed by intensity-based

filtering with a threshold of 0.5 to select probes with the most consistent patterns of regional

variation across donors, after which probes were aggregated to genes; (ii) gene expression samples

were mapped to the Schaefer400 parcellation, in which a bidirectional mirroring approach across the

left and right hemispheres was applied, and centroid-based imputation was employed to address

missing data; (iii) the expression values of each sample were normalized across the genes for each

donor, and subsequently, the expression values of each gene were normalized across all samples for

each donor; and (iv) the samples were aggregated across donors to generate expression values for a

given region. Thus, 15,632 genes remained, and a gene expression matrix ($400 \times 15{,}632$) was used

for subsequent analyses[104].

PLS regression was employed to relate the Haufe-transformed ethnicity/race predictive weights to

the transcriptomic measurements of all 15,632 genes[32]. In the PLS model, Z-normalized gene

expression data served as the predictor variable, and Z-normalized predictive weights served as the

response variables. PLS1 provides the optimal low-dimensional representation of gene expression

profiles that co-vary most strongly with ethnicity/race-related variability in brain functional

connectivity. The statistical significance of the variance explained by PLS1 was assessed by spatially

permuting the response variables 1,000 times. Finally, bootstrapping was used to quantify the

estimation errors for the PLS1 weight of each gene. A Z score for each gene was then calculated by

dividing its weight by its bootstrap SE, enabling the ranking of genes based on their PLS1

contributions.

In both the HCP-YA and HCP-D datasets, the top 2,000 positive genes and 2,000 negative genes

were selected based on their Z-score values to form the PLS1+ and PLS1- gene sets, respectively.

Each gene set was then submitted separately to the Metascape website, an automated functional

pathway enrichment tool that provides biological insights for the given gene list. To validate the

enrichment results, the PLS genes from the HCP-YA and HCP-D datasets were then entered into

Metascape together to conduct a multi-gene list meta-analysis. This approach facilitates the

understanding of pathways that are shared across gene lists or are unique to a specific gene list. All

identified pathways were considered significant at $P < 0.05$, corrected for multiple comparisons by

the FDR.

Statistical analysis. The spatial association between different cortical maps was assessed across

parcels using two-sided Pearson's correlation analysis. To account for distance-dependent spatial

autocorrelation, which can lead to an overestimation of statistical significance, we implemented a

spin test. Specifically, a null distribution was generated for each cortical feature by performing 1,000

random rotations of the corresponding feature map. Permutation P values were calculated by

counting the number of times that the null correlation exceeded (for positive correlations) or fell

below (for negative correlations) the observed correlation, divided by the total number of spatial

rotations. Spin tests were implemented using the Neuromaps toolbox

(https://github.com/netneurolab/neuromaps).

Data availability

The raw and preprocessed data are available from the HCP

(https://www.humanconnectome.org/study/hcp-young-adult/document/1200-subjects-data-release;

https://humanconnectome.org/study/hcp-lifespan-development). The subject lists for both the HCP-

YA and HCP-D datasets are available on our GitHub page

(https://github.com/TianyiYanLab/Ethnicity_Race_Diversity). Human gene expression data are

available from the Allen Brain Atlas (https://human.brainmap.org). In our analyses, we also utilized

publicly available cortical atlases, including the Schaefer400 atlas

(https://github.com/ThomasYeoLab/CBIG/tree/master/stable_projects/brain_parcellation/Schaefer20

18_LocalGlobal/Parcellations), the S–A axis (https://github.com/PennLINC/S-A_ArchetypalAxis),

and environmental effect maps (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7606653). The PLS1 gene lists and Z

score weights for both cohorts are provided in Supplementary Data 1. All data supporting the

findings of this study are included in the paper and its Supplementary Information, and all additional

information is available from the authors upon reasonable request.

Code availability

All the codes used to generate the results are available on GitHub

(https://github.com/TianyiYanLab/Ethnicity_Race_Diversity).

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the HCP team and Dr. Zaixu Cui for their support and help. This work was

supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant numbers 62336002, 62406025

and 82302175); the STI 2030-Major Projects (grant number 2022ZD0208500); the Key-Area

Research and Development Program of Guangdong Province (grant number 2023B0303030002); the

National Science and Technology Innovation 2030 Program (grant number 2021ZD0200500); and

the Beijing Nova Program (grant number 20230484465).

References

1. Kopal J, Uddin LQ, Bzdok D. The end game: respecting major sources of population diversity. Nat Meth. 2023;20(8):1122-1128.
2. Ricard J, Parker T, Dhamala E, Kwasa J, Allsop A, Holmes A. Confronting racially exclusionary practices in the acquisition and analyses of neuroimaging data. Nat Neurosci. 2023;26(1):4-11.
3. Harnett NG, Merrill LC, Fani N. Racial and ethnic socioenvironmental inequity and neuroimaging in psychiatry: a brief review of the past and recommendations for the future. Neuropsychopharmacol. 2024:1-13.
4. Dhamala E, Ricard JA, Uddin LQ, Galea LA, Jacobs EG, Yip SW, et al. Considering the interconnected nature of social identities in neuroimaging research. Nat Neurosci. 2024:1-12.
5. Harnett NG, Fani N, Rowland G, Kumar P, Rutherford S, Nickerson LD. Population-level normative models reveal race-and socioeconomic-related variability in cortical thickness of threat neurocircuitry. Commun Biol. 2024;7(1):745.
6. Yang G, Bozek J, Han M, Gao JH. Constructing and evaluating a cortical surface atlas and analyzing cortical sex differences in young Chinese adults. Hum Brain Mapp. 2020;41(9):2495-2513.
7. Dumornay NM, Lebois LA, Ressler KJ, Harnett NG. Racial disparities in adversity during childhood and the false appearance of race-related differences in brain structure. Am J Psychiatry. 2023;180(2):127-138.
8. Yang G, Zhou S, Bozek J, Dong H-M, Han M, Zuo X-N, et al. Sample sizes and population differences in brain template construction. Neuroimage. 2020;206:116318.
9. Fields C, Rosenblatt M, Scheinost D. Racialized Heteroscedasticity in Connectome-Based Predictions of Brain-Behavior Relationships. PsyArXiv. 2024:2025.2001.2010.31234.
10. Harnett NG, Fani N, Carter S, Sanchez LD, Rowland GE, Davie WM, et al. Structural inequities contribute to racial/ethnic differences in neurophysiological tone, but not threat reactivity, after trauma exposure. Mol Psychiatry. 2023;28(7):2975-2984.
11. Ge J, Yang G, Han M, Zhou S, Men W, Qin L, et al. Increasing diversity in connectomics with the Chinese Human Connectome Project. Nat Neurosci. 2023;26(1):163-172.
12. Yang G, Bozek J, Noble S, Han M, Wu X, Xue M, et al. Global diversity in individualized cortical network topography. Cereb Cortex. 2023;33(11):6803-6817.
13. Pang JC, Aquino KM, Oldehinkel M, Robinson PA, Fulcher BD, Breakspear M, et al. Geometric constraints on human brain function. Nature. 2023;618(7965):566-574.
14. Fotiadis P, Parkes L, Davis KA, Satterthwaite TD, Shinohara RT, Bassett DS. Structure–function coupling in macroscale human brain networks. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2024;25(10):688-704.
15. Cardenas-Iniguez C, Gonzalez MR. Recommendations for the responsible use and communication of race and ethnicity in neuroimaging research. Nat Neurosci. 2024;27(4):615-628.
16. Puka K, Kilian C, Zhu Y, Mulia N, Buckley C, Lasserre AM, et al. Can lifestyle factors explain racial and ethnic inequalities in all-cause mortality among US adults? BMC Public Health. 2023;23(1):1591.
17. Han S, Northoff G. Culture-sensitive neural substrates of human cognition: A transcultural neuroimaging approach. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2008;9(8):646-654.
18. Williams DR, Collins C. US socioeconomic and racial differences in health: patterns and explanations. Annu Rev Sociol. 1995;21(1):349-386.
19. Sudano JJ, Baker DW. Explaining US racial/ethnic disparities in health declines and mortality in late middle age: the roles of socioeconomic status, health behaviors, and health insurance. Soc Sci Med. 2006;62(4):909-922.

20. Roberts AL, Gilman SE, Breslau J, Breslau N, Koenen KC. Race/ethnic differences in exposure
to traumatic events, development of post-traumatic stress disorder, and treatment-seeking for post-
traumatic stress disorder in the United States. Psychol Med. 2011;41(1):71-83.
21. Noble KG, Houston SM, Brito NH, Bartsch H, Kan E, Kuperman JM, et al. Family income,
parental education and brain structure in children and adolescents. Nat Neurosci. 2015;18(5):773-
778.
22. Tomalski P, Moore DG, Ribeiro H, Axelsson EL, Murphy E, Karmiloff‐Smith A, et al.
Socioeconomic status and functional brain development – associations in early infancy. Dev Sci.
2013;16(5):676-687.
23. Carter SE, Ong ML, Simons RL, Gibbons FX, Lei MK, Beach SR. The effect of early
discrimination on accelerated aging among African Americans. Health Psychol. 2019;38(11):1010.
24. Fani N, Carter SE, Harnett NG, Ressler KJ, Bradley B. Association of racial discrimination with
neural response to threat in Black women in the US exposed to trauma. JAMA Psychiatry.
2021;78(9):1005-1012.
25. Firth J, Solmi M, Wootton RE, Vancampfort D, Schuch FB, Hoare E, et al. A meta‐review of
"lifestyle psychiatry": the role of exercise, smoking, diet and sleep in the prevention and treatment
of mental disorders. World Psychiatry. 2020;19(3):360-380.
26. Murray CJ, Aravkin AY, Zheng P, Abbafati C, Abbas KM, Abbasi-Kangevari M, et al. Global
burden of 87 risk factors in 204 countries and territories, 1990–2019: a systematic analysis for the
Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. Lancet. 2020;396(10258):1223-1249.
27. Richiardi J, Altmann A, Milazzo A-C, Chang C, Chakravarty MM, Banaschewski T, et al.
Correlated gene expression supports synchronous activity in brain networks. Science.
2015;348(6240):1241-1244.
28. Fornito A, Arnatkevičiūtė A, Fulcher BD. Bridging the gap between connectome and
transcriptome. Trends Cogn Sci. 2019;23(1):34-50.
29. Feng G, Wang Y, Huang W, Chen H, Cheng J, Shu N. Spatial and temporal pattern of
structure–function coupling of human brain connectome with development. eLife. 2024;13:RP93325.
30. Zhang X-H, Anderson KM, Dong H-M, Chopra S, Dhamala E, Emani PS, et al. The cell-type
underpinnings of the human functional cortical connectome. Nat Neurosci. 2024:1-11.
31. Morgan SE, Seidlitz J, Whitaker KJ, Romero-Garcia R, Clifton NE, Scarpazza C, et al. Cortical
patterning of abnormal morphometric similarity in psychosis is associated with brain expression of
schizophrenia-related genes. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2019;116(19):9604-9609.
32. Li J, Seidlitz J, Suckling J, Fan F, Ji G-J, Meng Y, et al. Cortical structural differences in major
depressive disorder correlate with cell type-specific transcriptional signatures. Nat Commun.
2021;12(1):1647.
33. Li L, Wei Y, Zhang J, Ma J, Yi Y, Gu Y, et al. Gene expression associated with individual
variability in intrinsic functional connectivity. Neuroimage. 2021;245:118743.
34. Benjamin KJ, Chen Q, Eagles NJ, Huuki-Myers LA, Collado-Torres L, Stolz JM, et al. Analysis
of gene expression in the postmortem brain of neurotypical Black Americans reveals contributions of
genetic ancestry. Nat Neurosci. 2024;27:1067-1074.
35. Foley KG, Adli M, Kim JJ. Single-nuclei sequencing of uterine serous carcinoma reveals racial
differences in immune signaling. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2024;121(34):e2402998121.
36. Association As. 2010 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. Alzheimers Dement.
2010;6(2):158-194.
37. Power MC, Bennett EE, Turner RW, Dowling NM, Ciarleglio A, Glymour MM, et al. Trends in
relative incidence and prevalence of dementia across non-Hispanic Black and White individuals in
the United States, 2000-2016. JAMA Neurol. 2021;78(3):275-284.
38. KESSLER II. Epidemiologic studies of Parkinson's disease: II. A hospital-based survey. Am J
Epidemiol. 1972;95(4):308-318.

39. Li J, Bzdok D, Chen J, Tam A, Ooi LQR, Holmes AJ, et al. Cross-ethnicity/race generalization
failure of behavioral prediction from resting-state functional connectivity. Sci Adv.
2022;8(11):eabj1812.
40. Kong R, Yang Q, Gordon E, Xue A, Yan X, Orban C, et al. Individual-specific areal-level
parcellations improve functional connectivity prediction of behavior. Cereb Cortex.
2021;31(10):4477-4500.
41. Schaefer A, Kong R, Gordon EM, Laumann TO, Zuo X-N, Holmes AJ, et al. Local-global
parcellation of the human cerebral cortex from intrinsic functional connectivity MRI. Cereb Cortex.
2018;28(9):3095-3114.
42. Wang D, Buckner RL, Fox MD, Holt DJ, Holmes AJ, Stoecklein S, et al. Parcellating cortical
functional networks in individuals. Nat Neurosci. 2015;18(12):1853-1860.
43. Gordon EM, Laumann TO, Gilmore AW, Newbold DJ, Greene DJ, Berg JJ, et al. Precision
functional mapping of individual human brains. Neuron. 2017;95(4):791-807. e797.
44. Fan L, Li H, Zhuo J, Zhang Y, Wang J, Chen L, et al. The human brainnetome atlas: a new
brain atlas based on connectional architecture. Cereb Cortex. 2016;26(8):3508-3526.
45. Chen J, Tam A, Kebets V, Orban C, Ooi LQR, Asplund CL, et al. Shared and unique brain
network features predict cognitive, personality, and mental health scores in the ABCD study. Nat
Commun. 2022;13(1):1-17.
46. Haufe S, Meinecke F, Görgen K, Dähne S, Haynes J-D, Blankertz B, et al. On the interpretation
of weight vectors of linear models in multivariate neuroimaging. Neuroimage. 2014;87:96-110.
47. Sydnor VJ, Larsen B, Seidlitz J, Adebimpe A, Alexander-Bloch AF, Bassett DS, et al. Intrinsic
activity development unfolds along a sensorimotor–association cortical axis in youth. Nat Neurosci.
2023;26(4):638-649.
48. Mowinckel AM, Vidal-Piñeiro D. Visualization of brain statistics with R packages ggseg and
ggseg3d. Adv Methods Pract Psychol Sci. 2020;3(4):466-483.
49. Seidlitz J, Váša F, Shinn M, Romero-Garcia R, Whitaker KJ, Vértes PE, et al. Morphometric
similarity networks detect microscale cortical organization and predict inter-individual cognitive
variation. Neuron. 2018;97(1):231-247. e237.
50. Fields RD. White matter in learning, cognition and psychiatric disorders. Trends Neurosci.
2008;31(7):361-370.
51. Glasser MF, Van Essen DC. Mapping human cortical areas in vivo based on myelin content as
revealed by T1-and T2-weighted MRI. J Neurosci. 2011;31(32):11597-11616.
52. Soldan A, Pettigrew C, Zhu Y, Wang M-C, Bilgel M, Hou X, et al. Association of lifestyle
activities with functional brain connectivity and relationship to cognitive decline among older adults.
Cereb Cortex. 2021;31(12):5637-5651.
53. Rolls ET, Feng R, Feng J. Lifestyle risks associated with brain functional connectivity and
structure. Hum Brain Mapp. 2023;44(6):2479-2492.
54. Zhao Y, Yang L, Sahakian BJ, Langley C, Zhang W, Kuo K, et al. The brain structure,
immunometabolic and genetic mechanisms underlying the association between lifestyle and
depression. Nature Mental Health. 2023;1(10):736-750.
55. Tian YE, Cole JH, Bullmore ET, Zalesky A. Brain, lifestyle and environmental pathways
linking physical and mental health. Nat Ment Health. 2024:1-12.
56. Sydnor VJ, Larsen B, Bassett DS, Alexander-Bloch A, Fair DA, Liston C, et al.
Neurodevelopment of the association cortices: Patterns, mechanisms, and implications for
psychopathology. Neuron. 2021;109(18):2820-2846.
57. Hawrylycz MJ, Lein ES, Guillozet-Bongaarts AL, Shen EH, Ng L, Miller JA, et al. An
anatomically comprehensive atlas of the adult human brain transcriptome. Nature.
2012;489(7416):391-399.

58. Sunkin SM, Ng L, Lau C, Dolbeare T, Gilbert TL, Thompson CL, et al. Allen Brain Atlas: an
integrated spatio-temporal portal for exploring the central nervous system. Nucleic Acids Res.
2012;41(D1):D996-D1008.

59. Abdi H. Partial least squares regression and projection on latent structure regression (PLS
Regression). Wiley Interdisc Rev Comput Stat. 2010;2(1):97-106.

60. Yeung C-YC, Taylor SH, Garva R, Holmes DF, Zeef LA, Soininen R, et al. Arhgap28 is a
RhoGAP that inactivates RhoA and downregulates stress fibers. PLoS One. 2014;9(9):e107036.

61. Tcherkezian J, Lamarche‐Vane N. Current knowledge of the large RhoGAP family of
proteins. Biol Cell. 2007;99(2):67-86.

62. Stephens HA. MICA and MICB genes: can the enigma of their polymorphism be resolved?
Trends Immunol. 2001;22(7):378-385.

63. Zhou Y, Zhou B, Pache L, Chang M, Khodabakhshi AH, Tanaseichuk O, et al. Metascape
provides a biologist-oriented resource for the analysis of systems-level datasets. Nat Commun.
2019;10(1):1523.

64. Bijsterbosch JD, Woolrich MW, Glasser MF, Robinson EC, Beckmann CF, Van Essen DC, et
al. The relationship between spatial configuration and functional connectivity of brain regions. eLife.
2018;7:e32992.

65. Cui Z, Li H, Xia CH, Larsen B, Adebimpe A, Baum GL, et al. Individual variation in functional
topography of association networks in youth. Neuron. 2020;106(2):340-353. e348.

66. Shanmugan S, Seidlitz J, Cui Z, Adebimpe A, Bassett DS, Bertolero MA, et al. Sex differences
in the functional topography of association networks in youth. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.
2022;119(33):e2110416119.

67. Valk SL, Xu T, Paquola C, Park B-y, Bethlehem RA, Vos de Wael R, et al. Genetic and
phylogenetic uncoupling of structure and function in human transmodal cortex. Nat Commun.
2022;13(1):2341.

68. Sebenius I, Dorfschmidt L, Seidlitz J, Alexander-Bloch A, Morgan SE, Bullmore E. Structural
MRI of brain similarity networks. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2024:1-18.

69. Keller AS, Moore TM, Luo A, Visoki E, Gataviņš MM, Shetty A, et al. A general exposome
factor explains individual differences in functional brain network topography and cognition in youth.
Dev Cogn Neurosci. 2024;66:101370.

70. Poldrack RA. Can cognitive processes be inferred from neuroimaging data? Trends Cogn Sci.
2006;10(2):59-63.

71. Kao G, Thompson JS. Racial and ethnic stratification in educational achievement and
attainment. Annu Rev Sociol. 2003;29(1):417-442.

72. Espinosa LL, Turk JM, Taylor M, Chessman HM. Race and ethnicity in higher education: A
status report. American Council on Education, 2019.

73. Ali MM, Creedon T, Bagalman E, Bui J, Clemans-Cope L, Winiski E, et al. Substance Use and
Substance Use Disorders by Race and Ethnicity, 2015-2019. U.S. Department of Health and Human
Services, 2023.

74. Gordon EM, Lynch CJ, Gratton C, Laumann TO, Gilmore AW, Greene DJ, et al. Three distinct
sets of connector hubs integrate human brain function. Cell Rep. 2018;24(7):1687-1695. e1684.

75. Kim P, Evans GW, Angstadt M, Ho SS, Sripada CS, Swain JE, et al. Effects of childhood
poverty and chronic stress on emotion regulatory brain function in adulthood. Proc Natl Acad Sci
USA. 2013;110(46):18442-18447.

76. Goodman AM, Harnett NG, Knight DC. Pavlovian conditioned diminution of the
neurobehavioral response to threat. Neurosci Biobehav Rev. 2018;84:218-224.

77. Stern Y. What is cognitive reserve? Theory and research application of the reserve concept. J
Int Neuropsychol Soc. 2002;8(3):448-460.

78. Barulli DJ, Rakitin BC, Lemaire P, Stern Y. The influence of cognitive reserve on strategy selection in normal aging. J Int Neuropsychol Soc. 2013;19(7):841-844.

79. Barulli D, Stern Y. Efficiency, capacity, compensation, maintenance, plasticity: emerging concepts in cognitive reserve. Trends Cogn Sci. 2013;17(10):502-509.

80. Bozzali M, Dowling C, Serra L, Spanò B, Torso M, Marra C, et al. The impact of cognitive reserve on brain functional connectivity in Alzheimer's disease. J Alzheimers Dis. 2015;44(1):243-250.

81. Seyedsalehi A, Warrier V, Bethlehem RA, Perry BI, Burgess S, Murray GK. Educational attainment, structural brain reserve and Alzheimer's disease: a Mendelian randomization analysis. Brain. 2023;146(5):2059-2074.

82. Volkow ND, Wang G-J, Fowler JS, Tomasi D, Telang F. Addiction: beyond dopamine reward circuitry. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2011;108(37):15037-15042.

83. Singleton SP, Velidi P, Schilling L, Luppi AI, Jamison K, Parkes L, et al. Altered structural connectivity and functional brain dynamics in individuals with heavy alcohol use elucidated via network control theory. Biol Psychiatry Cogn Neurosci Neuroimaging. 2024.

84. Li C-sR, Sinha R. Inhibitory control and emotional stress regulation: Neuroimaging evidence for frontal–limbic dysfunction in psycho-stimulant addiction. Neurosci Biobehav Rev. 2008;32(3):581-597.

85. Tidey JW, Miller ME. Smoking cessation and reduction in people with chronic mental illness. BMJ. 2015;351.

86. Xiang S, Jia T, Xie C, Cheng W, Chaarani B, Banaschewski T, et al. Association between vmPFC gray matter volume and smoking initiation in adolescents. Nat Commun. 2023;14(1):4684.

87. Shokri-Kojori E, Tomasi D, Wiers CE, Wang G-J, Volkow ND. Alcohol affects brain functional connectivity and its coupling with behavior: greater effects in male heavy drinkers. Mol Psychiatry. 2017;22(8):1185-1195.

88. MacKillop J, Agabio R, Feldstein Ewing SW, Heilig M, Kelly JF, Leggio L, et al. Hazardous drinking and alcohol use disorders. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2022;8(1):80.

89. Cohen S, Greenberg ME. Communication between the synapse and the nucleus in neuronal development, plasticity, and disease. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol. 2008;24(1):183-209.

90. Tau GZ, Peterson BS. Normal development of brain circuits. Neuropsychopharmacol. 2010;35(1):147-168.

91. Jiang X, Nardelli J. Cellular and molecular introduction to brain development. Neurobiol Dis. 2016;92:3-17.

92. Stringhini S, Polidoro S, Sacerdote C, Kelly RS, Van Veldhoven K, Agnoli C, et al. Life-course socioeconomic status and DNA methylation of genes regulating inflammation. Int J Epidemiol. 2015;44(4):1320-1330.

93. Kapoor M, Wang J-C, Farris SP, Liu Y, McClintick J, Gupta I, et al. Analysis of whole genome-transcriptomic organization in brain to identify genes associated with alcoholism. Transl Psychiatry. 2019;9(1):89.

94. Rahman MF, McGowan PO. Cell-type-specific epigenetic effects of early life stress on the brain. Transl Psychiatry. 2022;12(1):326.

95. Grazioli E, Dimauro I, Mercatelli N, Wang G, Pitsiladis Y, Di Luigi L, et al. Physical activity in the prevention of human diseases: role of epigenetic modifications. BMC Genomics. 2017;18:111-123.

96. Vetr NG, Gay NR, Montgomery SB. The impact of exercise on gene regulation in association with complex trait genetics. Nat Commun. 2024;15(1):3346.

97. Rosenbaum DM, Rasmussen SG, Kobilka BK. The structure and function of G-protein-coupled receptors. Nature. 2009;459(7245):356-363.

98. Van Essen DC, Smith SM, Barch DM, Behrens TE, Yacoub E, Ugurbil K, et al. The WU-Minn human connectome project: an overview. Neuroimage. 2013;80:62-79.

99. Harms MP, Somerville LH, Ances BM, Andersson J, Barch DM, Bastiani M, et al. Extending the Human Connectome Project across ages: Imaging protocols for the Lifespan Development and Aging projects. Neuroimage. 2018;183:972-984.

100. Glasser MF, Sotiropoulos SN, Wilson JA, Coalson TS, Fischl B, Andersson JL, et al. The minimal preprocessing pipelines for the Human Connectome Project. Neuroimage. 2013;80:105-124.

101. Dhamala E, Ooi LQR, Chen J, Ricard JA, Berkeley E, Chopra S, et al. Brain-based predictions of psychiatric illness–linked behaviors across the sexes. Biol Psychiatry. 2023;94(6):479-491.

102. Serio B, Hettwer MD, Wiersch L, Bignardi G, Sacher J, Weis S, et al. Sex differences in functional cortical organization reflect differences in network topology rather than cortical morphometry. Nat Commun. 2024;15(1):7714.

103. Markello RD, Arnatkeviciute A, Poline J-B, Fulcher BD, Fornito A, Misic B. Standardizing workflows in imaging transcriptomics with the abagen toolbox. eLife. 2021;10:e72129.

104. Arnatkevičiūtė A, Fulcher BD, Fornito A. A practical guide to linking brain-wide gene expression and neuroimaging data. Neuroimage. 2019;189:353-367.