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# Linking Neural and Clinical Measures of Glaucoma with Diffusion Magnetic Resonance Imaging (dMRI)

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## 29 **Abstract**

30 Purpose: To link optic nerve (ON) structural integrity to clinical markers of glaucoma using  
31 advanced, semi-automated diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) tractography methods in human  
32 glaucoma patients.

33  
34 Methods: We characterized optic neuropathy in patients with unilateral advanced-stage glaucoma  
35 ( $n = 6$ ) using probabilistic DWI tractography and compared their results to those in healthy  
36 controls ( $n=6$ ).

37  
38 Results: We successfully identified the ONs of glaucoma patients based on DWI in all patients  
39 and confirmed that the degree of reduced structural integrity of the ONs determined using DWI  
40 correlated with clinical markers of glaucoma severity. Specifically, we found reduced fractional  
41 anisotropy (FA), a measure of structural integrity, in the ONs of eyes with advanced, as  
42 compared to mild, glaucoma ( $F(1,10) = 55.474$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Furthermore, by comparing the  
43 ratios of ON FA in glaucoma patients to those of healthy controls ( $n = 6$ ), we determined that  
44 this difference was beyond that expected from normal anatomical variation ( $F(1,9) = 20.276$ ,  $p <$   
45  $0.005$ ). Finally, we linked the DWI-measures of neural integrity to standard clinical glaucoma  
46 measures. ON vertical cup-to-disc ratio (vCD) predicted ON FA ( $F(1,10) = 11.061$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $R^2$   
47  $= 0.66$ ), retinal nerve fiber layer thickness (RNFL) predicted ON FA ( $F(1,10) = 11.477$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  
48  $R^2 = 0.63$ ) and ON FA predicted perceptual deficits (visual field index [VFI]) ( $F(1,10) = 15.308$ ,  
49  $p < 0.005$ ,  $R^2 = 0.52$ ).

50

51 Conclusion: We provide semi-automated methods to detect glaucoma-related structural changes  
52 using DWI and confirm that they correlate with clinical measures of glaucoma.

53

## 54 **Introduction**

55 Vision loss is a major cause of disability worldwide that is particularly common among  
56 the elderly, conferring a greater risk of injury and diminished quality of life [1-2]. Glaucoma is  
57 the leading cause of irreversible vision loss worldwide and is projected to affect nearly 80  
58 million individuals by 2020 [3]. It is clinically defined by characteristic patterns of visual field  
59 impairment and optic nerve (ON) damage [4]. There is growing evidence that glaucoma may be  
60 a neurodegenerative condition. Recent studies suggest that the pathogenesis of glaucoma bears  
61 similarities to that of Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)  
62 [6]. Thus, research seeking to understand the possible underlying neurodegenerative processes  
63 associated with glaucoma may help guide the development of more robust treatment paradigms  
64 and have applications for improving our understanding of other neurodegenerative diseases. In  
65 addition, current glaucoma treatments are limited to the reduction of intraocular pressure (IOP)  
66 to prevent progressive visual field loss. However, many patients continue to lose vision despite  
67 treatment, and no treatments are available to reverse damage that has already occurred to the  
68 visual system [4]. Therefore, the development of robust methods enabling earlier diagnosis and  
69 more precise quantification of disease progression are essential to limiting glaucomatous damage  
70 and improving patient outcomes.

71 MRI-based *in vivo* human studies using voxel-based morphometry (VBM) and diffusion  
72 tensor imaging (DTI) to explore gray- and white-matter cortical changes associated with  
73 glaucoma have shown reduced gray-matter (GM) volume in late stages of the disease, along with

74 significant rarefaction along the optic radiations [7-9]. While these results are consistent with  
75 animal models and post-mortem pathological studies of human subjects [10], there is a need for  
76 more precise evaluation of neurological changes, particularly at the level of the ON. Animal  
77 model studies of the early visual system using diffusion MRI (dMRI) demonstrate the ability to  
78 detect changes in the neural integrity of the ONs from damage occurring within the retina [11-  
79 12]. In a meta-analysis of studies examining the ONs of human glaucoma patients using various  
80 DTI methods, Li, et al. (2014) noted significant decreases in fractional anisotropy (FA) and  
81 increases in mean diffusivity (MD) in the ONs of glaucoma patients compared to controls [13].  
82 A number of studies in this meta-analysis also examined the correlation between various  
83 measures of disease severity (including glaucoma stage and optical coherence tomography  
84 [OCT] measurements) and structural white-matter changes. Generally, increasing glaucoma  
85 disease severity is associated with greater white-matter disruption (i.e. decreasing FA and  
86 increasing MD) [14-18].

87 While these studies have quantified the diffusion properties of glaucomatous ONs and  
88 their relationship with various clinical measures of disease severity, they rely on older dMRI  
89 methodologies. In particular, these studies employ relatively low-resolution, single phase-  
90 encoding direction diffusion scans and sample the ONs using manually placed regions of interest  
91 (ROIs). [14-19]. By sampling from only small portions of the ONs, these techniques are limited  
92 in their ability to measure the full extent of optic neuropathy. Moreover, manual ON  
93 segmentation is time-intensive, may introduce operator error, and limits the ability to translate  
94 this technique into widespread clinical practice. Diffusion MRI methods have advanced  
95 substantially since the publication of these studies, and there is an opportunity to investigate and  
96 validate methods that rely on semi-automated techniques to assess the ON using dMRI.

97           Recent diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) based probabilistic tractography methods have  
98    been developed that can more precisely evaluate white-matter changes in the human visual  
99    system. These methods have demonstrated reduced white matter integrity in patients with  
100   amblyopia [20]. In this study, we apply this technique to patients with asymmetric glaucomatous  
101   optic neuropathy in each eye to evaluate DWI methods as a diagnostic tool for visual disorders,  
102   linking changes in white-matter integrity to retinal and perceptual changes in glaucoma. Recent  
103   methodological advances make it possible to reliably identify the microstructural properties of  
104   the ON with limited user input [21]. Using a pair of diffusion scans acquired with opposite  
105   phase-encoding directions, a low-noise field-corrected volume can be created [22-23], allowing  
106   the ONs to be isolated using probabilistic tractography. This provides a unique opportunity to  
107   quantify changes across the entire length of the ONs in glaucoma patients. Further, we  
108   purposefully selected patients with asymmetric glaucomatous ON damage to allow for within-  
109   subjects comparisons of ON properties, quantifying differences in eyes with “advanced” versus  
110   “mild” glaucoma as defined by the American Academy of Ophthalmology [24].

111           We used an advanced DWI tractography method to identify and analyze the ONs of six  
112   asymmetric glaucoma patients and six controls. Using both within-subject analyses and  
113   comparison to controls, we evaluated structural changes in the ONs associated with glaucoma.  
114   Furthermore, we assessed the relationship between these MRI-based neural measures, clinical  
115   measures of ON and retinal integrity (e.g. vertical cup-to-disc ratio and average peripapillary  
116   retinal nerve fiber layer thickness), and perceptual measures (e.g. visual field index).

117

## 118   **Methods**

### 119   **Participants**

120 Our study was conducted in accordance with the Code of Ethics of the World Medical  
121 Association (Declaration of Helsinki). Informed consent was obtained from all participants and  
122 all participants completed MRI screening with consultation and approval obtained from their  
123 physicians as needed to ensure they could safely participate.

124

## 125 **Glaucoma Patients**

126 Six glaucoma patients (4 female) aged 19-66 years (mean  $53.3 \pm 17.4$ ) were recruited  
127 from the Glaucoma Service of the University of Wisconsin Hospitals and Clinics (Table 1). All  
128 patients had a diagnosis of either primary open-angle, pigment dispersion, pseudoexfoliation, or  
129 chronic angle-closure glaucoma and a history of IOPs greater than 22 mmHg. Selection criteria  
130 included a Snellen best-corrected visual acuity of 20/25 or better in the eye with “mild”  
131 glaucoma and 20/200 or better in the eye with “advanced” glaucoma. Patients with any history of  
132 neurodegenerative diseases, normal-tension glaucoma, diabetic retinopathy, advanced macular  
133 degeneration, uveitis, or previous (non-surgical) eye trauma were excluded.

134

## 135 **Control Subjects**

136 Control subjects were recruited from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Six gender-  
137 matched subjects aged 21-34 years (mean  $24 \pm 5.3$ ) were included in the analysis. All subjects  
138 had Snellen best-corrected visual acuity of 20/20 or better and had no prior medical history of  
139 neurologic or ocular pathology other than refractive error. Eye dominance was determined as  
140 follows: subjects were instructed to form a small aperture using both hands (right and left hands  
141 overlapping so a small opening is formed with the inner sides of the palms and thumbs) and to  
142 fixate on a distant object through that opening with both eyes open. Without moving their head

143 or hands, subjects were then instructed to close their left eye and were asked whether or not they  
144 could still see the object. This same task was repeated with the right eye closed. The eye with  
145 which they could see the fixation target was recorded as the “dominant” eye. Ocular dominance  
146 was successfully determined for 6/6 control subjects.

147

148 **Table 1. Demographics and Ocular Characteristics of Glaucoma Patients**

Patient	Age	Sex	Eye	VA	VFI	vCD	RNFL ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
G1	19	F	OD	20/20	100%	0.34	121
			<b>OS</b>	<b>20/30</b>	<b>41%</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>56</b>
G2	54	M	<b>OD</b>	<b>20/20</b>	<b>92%</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>66</b>
			OS	20/20	99%	0.63	70
G3	57	F	<b>OD</b>	<b>20/25</b>	<b>54%</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>52</b>
			OS	20/30	99%	0.63	73
G4	59	M	<b>OD</b>	<b>20/30</b>	<b>62%</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>45</b>
			OS	20/20	97%	0.80	57
G5	65	F	OD	20/40	96%	0.57	73
			<b>OS</b>	<b>20/25</b>	<b>69%</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>52</b>
G6	66	F	OD	20/20	100%	0.74	83
			<b>OS</b>	<b>20/20</b>	<b>91%</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>66</b>

149

150 Characteristics of glaucoma patients including age, sex, Snellen best-corrected visual acuity (VA), visual  
151 field index (VFI), vertical cup-to-disc ratio (vCD), and average peripapillary retinal nerve fiber layer  
152 thickness (RNFL). Eyes with advanced glaucoma are indicated in **bold**.

153

## 154 **Clinical Measures**

155 Clinical measures of ON structure and function were assessed for each of the six  
156 glaucoma patients during clinical ophthalmologic exams by a glaucoma specialist (Y.L.). These  
157 measures included Snellen best-corrected visual acuity (VA), vertical cup-to-disc ratio (vCD),  
158 average peripapillary retinal nerve fiber layer thickness (RNFL), and visual field index (VFI).

159 The vCD was determined by direct visualization of the ON using slit-lamp biomicroscopy,  
160 average peripapillary RNFL thickness was measured using Cirrus Spectral-Domain Optical  
161 Coherence Tomography (Carl Zeiss Meditec, Inc., Dublin, CA, USA) with all scans having  
162 adequate signal strength ( $>7/10$ ), and VFI was measured using the Humphrey visual field 24-2  
163 SITA-Standard testing algorithm (Carl Zeiss Meditec, Inc. Dublin, CA, USA) on visual fields  
164 with adequate reliability indices ( $<33\%$  fixation losses, false positives, and false negatives).

165

## 166 **Magnetic Resonance Imaging Data Acquisition**

167 Brain imaging data was obtained at the Waisman Center in Madison, WI using a GE  
168 Discovery Medical 3T MRI scanner (GE Healthcare, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) equipped with a  
169 32-channel head coil. First, a 10-minute structural whole-brain T1-weighted anatomical scan  
170 (2.93 ms TE; 6.70 ms TR; 1 mm<sup>3</sup> isotropic voxels) was acquired. Then, a 15-minute diffusion  
171 sequence with two 48-direction diffusion-weighted scans (6 b<sub>0</sub>), collected in the anterior to  
172 posterior (AP) and posterior to anterior (PA) directions (76.7 ms TE; 8.1 s TR; 2x2x2 mm<sup>3</sup>  
173 isotropic voxels; b = 2000 nm/s<sup>2</sup>; reconstruction matrix FOV: LR 212 mm x AP 212 mm x FH  
174 144 mm).

175

## 176 **Data Processing**

### 177 **Pre-processing**

178 To improve the quality of our tractography and increase the signal-to-noise ratio in the  
179 nasal cavity, the two reverse-encoded (AP and PA) diffusion scans were combined into a single  
180 corrected volume using the FSL software (University of Oxford, Oxford, England) [22-23].



181 Subsequent processing was completed using the mrVista software package (Stanford University,  
182 Stanford, California), based on previously published methods [21]. A mean  $b=0$  image was  
183 calculated from the corrected DTI volume and underwent eddy current correction. This corrected  
184  $b_0$  image was co-registered to the AC-PC-aligned T1 image and diffusion tensors were fit to the  
185 volume using a least-squares estimate bootstrapped 500 times [25].

## 186 **ROI Placement**

187 We manually identified three ROIs along the brain's visual pathway. The T1 image was  
188 used to place the left and right ONs and the optic chiasm (OC) by gross anatomy. 4-mm spheres  
189 were used for the ONs (centered slightly posterior to the ON head at the back of the eye), and a  
190 6-mm sphere was used for the OC.

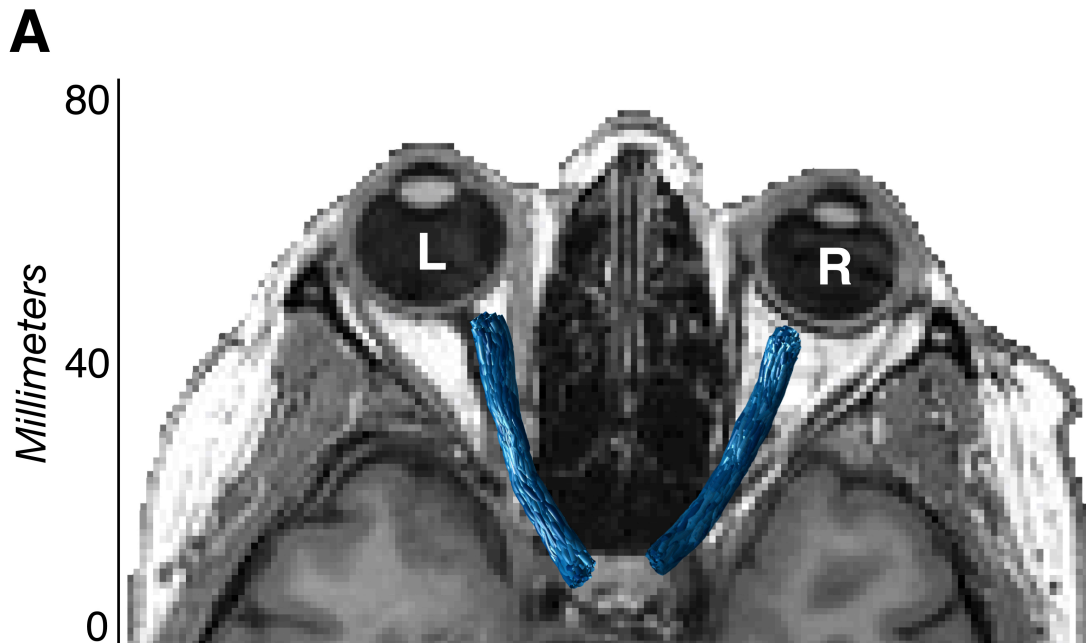
## 191 **Tractography**

192 We derived visual pathways through probabilistic diffusion-weighted tractography using  
193 MRtrix2 (Brain Research Institute, Melbourne, Australia) [26-34]. Constrained spherical  
194 deconvolution (CSD) estimates were used to generate fibers between two ROI pairs, representing  
195 the left and right ONs (ON » OC). Whole-brain tractography was completed using an  $L_{max}$  of 6  
196 with 500,000 seeds and a maximum of 5,000,000 fibers. A modified white-matter mask  
197 generated using mrVista was used to constrain fibers to the brain while still allowing CSDs to be  
198 fit within the nasal cavity, enabling detection of the ONs. Final pathways were restricted to fibers  
199 passing between the specified ROIs, omitting any spurious results.

## 200 **Fiber Cleaning**

201 Fiber groups were cleaned using the Automated Fiber Quantification (AFQ) toolkit  
202 (Stanford University) [35], followed by a quality assessment and manual cleaning as necessary.  
203 Fibers were overlaid on the anatomical T1 volume and any fibers that were found to be

204 anatomically implausible were manually removed. Pathways from all 12 participants were  
205 processed using the same AFQ cleaning parameters and were manually refined by the same  
206 operator (N.M.) (Fig. 1).

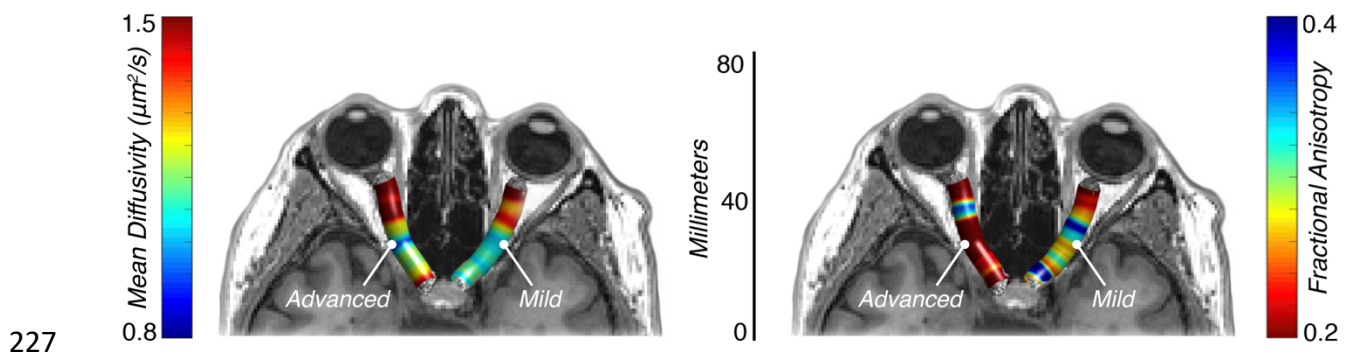


207  
208 **Fig 1. Optic nerve visualization using diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging.** Visualization  
209 of final tractography-generated optic nerve white-matter pathways (blue) in a representative glaucoma  
210 patient (G6) using diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance imaging.

## 211 212 **Diffusion Measures**

213 Voxel-wise tensor properties were extracted from the volumetric region defined by each  
214 tractography-generated pathway. The main diffusion properties included in our analysis were  
215 mean diffusivity (MD,  $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ) and fractional anisotropy (FA) (Fig 2). MD provides an average  
216 measure of pathway diffusivity and is a useful approximation of white-matter density, where  
217 large values indicate a diffuse (“weak”) pathway, and small values indicate a denser and/or more  
218 myelinated (“strong”) pathway [36]. FA provides a measure of diffusion directionality and is  
219 highly sensitive to microstructural changes across different pathologies, where large values

220 indicate a single highly myelinated “intact” pathway, and small values indicate multiple  
221 intersecting, degenerated, or demyelinated pathways. To more precisely characterize the MD and  
222 FA measures, we also assessed the component measures, radial diffusivity (RD,  $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ) and axial  
223 diffusivity (AD,  $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ). RD has been demonstrated to be more sensitive to changes in white-  
224 matter myelination, while AD is more sensitive to axonal degeneration [37]. Typically, large RD  
225 values indicate demyelination, while large AD values indicate axonal degeneration.  
226



228 **Fig 2. Optic nerve diffusion properties using diffusion weighted magnetic resonance imaging.** Mean  
229 diffusivity ( $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ) and fractional anisotropy values in a representative glaucoma patient (G6) with  
230 advanced glaucoma in the left optic nerve and mild glaucoma in the right optic nerve using diffusion  
231 weighted magnetic resonance imaging.

232

## 233 Analysis

234 A combination of within- and between-groups analyses were conducted to evaluate the  
235 structural white-matter changes associated with glaucoma-related vision damage. All six  
236 asymmetric glaucoma patients had one eye with no or early glaucomatous visual field defects  
237 (“mild”) and one eye with moderate or advanced glaucomatous visual field defects (“advanced”)  
238 [24]. Within-subjects, diffusion-tensor properties were compared between the “advanced” and  
239 “mild” eyes. Between-subjects, the ratios of “advanced” / “mild” ON FA in glaucoma patients

240 were compared to non-dominant/dominant ratios in controls. This design minimized the possible  
241 effect of global changes in white-matter properties as a result of age.

242 To facilitate these comparisons and normalize pathway lengths, 100 samples were taken  
243 along the length of each pathway such that 100 average MD, FA, RD, and AD values were  
244 available for each pathway in each of the two groups (glaucoma patients and control subjects).  
245 These values were generated for each cross-section using a Gaussian-weighted average, where  
246 the calculated “core” of each pathway was selectively weighted over the outlying fibers. From  
247 these 100 samples, the central 80 were retained for further analysis to reduce the risk of  
248 including measures contaminated by retinal cell bodies or contralateral fiber tracts [20-21, 38].  
249 The central 80% of each sample was further subdivided into 10% bins to more precisely quantify  
250 differences along the pathway length.

251

## 252 **Statistical Analysis**

253 A linear mixed effect (LME) model was used to compare the MD, FA, RD, and AD  
254 values of the advanced and mild ONs across the middle 80% of samples and at each of the eight  
255 10% bins in glaucoma patients. This model factored glaucoma severity (advanced or mild) as a  
256 fixed effect and subject as a random effect. Reported p-values are from ANOVAs of the fixed  
257 “glaucoma severity” effects. The same LME model was used in the glaucoma and control ratio  
258 comparisons, as well as in all correlational data (factoring clinical and neurological measures as  
259 fixed effects and subjects as random effects). For all correlations, reported  $R^2$  values are adjusted  
260 to the number of predictors included in the LME model.

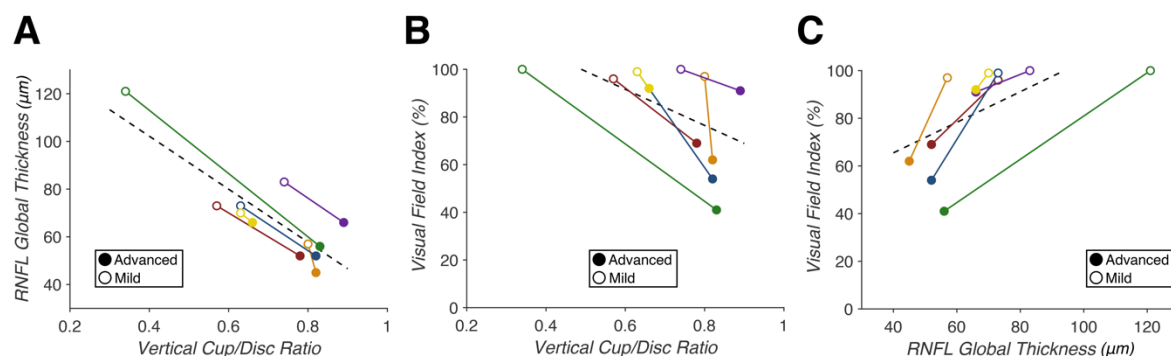
261

## 262 **Results**

## 263 Selection of Clinical Measures of Structure and Function

264 As expected, we identified strong correlations between vCD and RNFL ( $F(1,10) =$   
265  $229.17, p = 3.20e-8, R^2 = 0.98$ ), vCD and VFI ( $F(1,10) = 15.662, p = 0.0027, R^2 = 0.64$ ), and  
266 RNFL and VFI ( $F(1,10) = 24.228, p = 0.00060, R^2 = 0.76$ ) (Fig 3). These measures quantify the  
267 anticipated correlations between clinical measures of structural and functional glaucomatous  
268 optic nerve damage in our patient sample.

269



270

### 271 Fig 3. Correlations between clinical glaucoma measures in glaucoma patients with asymmetric optic

272 nerve damage (n=6). (A) Vertical cup/disc ratio (vCD) predicts average retinal nerve fiber layer (RNFL)

273 thickness ( $p = 3.20e-8, R^2 = 0.98$ ). (B) vCD predicts visual field index (VFI) ( $p = 0.0027, R^2 = 0.64$ ).

274 RNFL predicts VFI ( $p = 0.00060, R^2 = 0.76$ ). Correlations within individual patients are indicated by each

275 solid colored line, with closed points marking eyes with “advanced” glaucoma and open points marking

276 eyes with “mild” glaucoma. A least-squares regression estimate is indicated by the dashed line.

277

## 278 Diffusion Magnetic Resonance Imaging

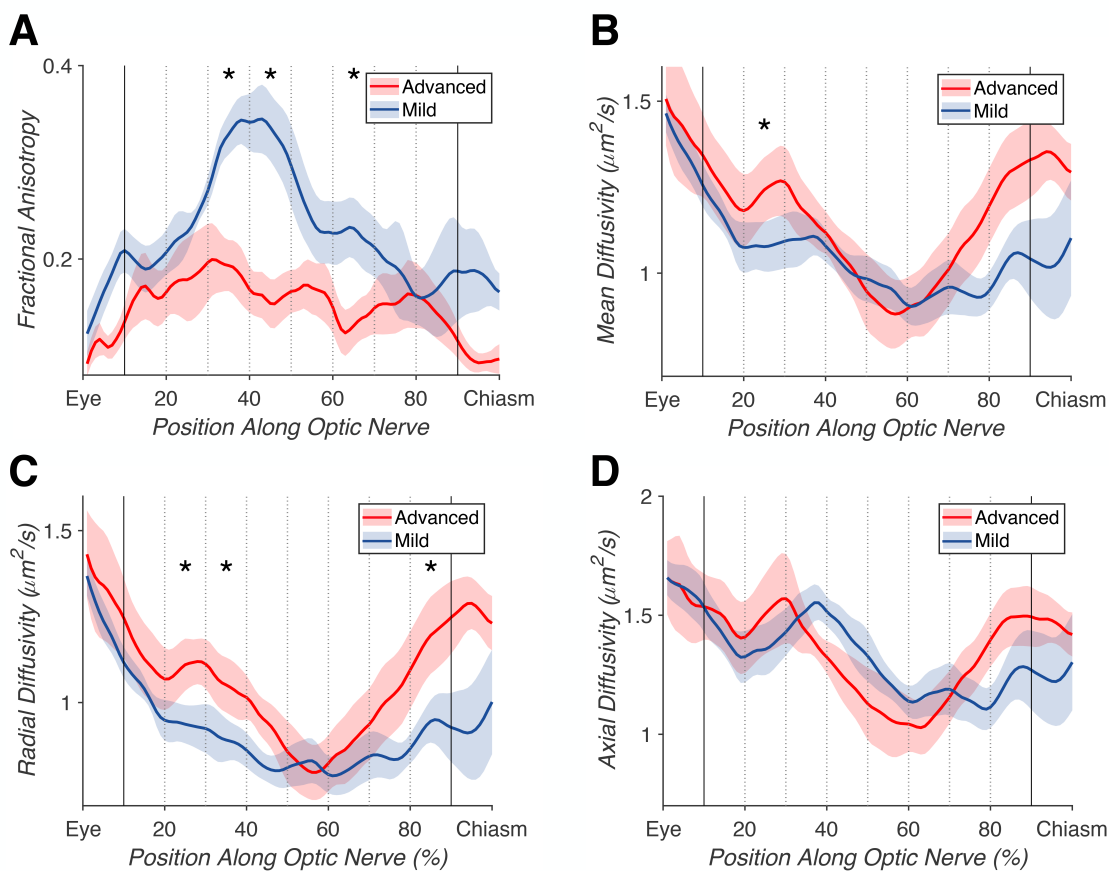
279 ON white-matter pathways were successfully identified and refined in 6/6 glaucoma

280 patients and 6/6 controls. All pathways appeared to be anatomically plausible after cleaning and

281 were amenable to within-subjects and group-wise comparisons. A significant difference in mean

282 FA between the advanced and mild ONs of glaucoma patients was noted in 3/8 bins ( $F_1(1,10) =$

283 55.442,  $p_1 = 2.20e-5$ ;  $F_2(1,10) = 18.382$ ,  $p_2 = 0.0016$ ;  $F_3(1,10) = 11.322$ ,  $p_3 = 0.0072$ ), along with  
284 a significant difference across the middle 80% of samples ( $F(1,10) = 55.474$ ,  $p = 2.19e-5$ ) (Fig  
285 4). In the same pathway, a significant difference in average MD was noted in 1/8 bins ( $F(1,10) =$   
286  $10.885$ ,  $p = 0.0080$ ). For RD, we found a significant difference in 3/8 bins ( $F_1(1,10) = 15.87$ ,  $p_1 =$   
287  $0.0026$ ;  $F_2(1,10) = 4.974$ ,  $p_2 = 0.0498$ ;  $F_3(1,10) = 5.687$ ,  $p_3 = 0.038$ ), along with a significant  
288 difference across the middle 80% ( $F(1,10) = 5.118$ ,  $p = 0.047$ ). No significant difference in AD  
289 was found (all  $p > 0.05$ ). Our subsequent analyses focus on ON FA because of the magnitude  
290 and reliability of the effect (compared to MD and RD).  
291



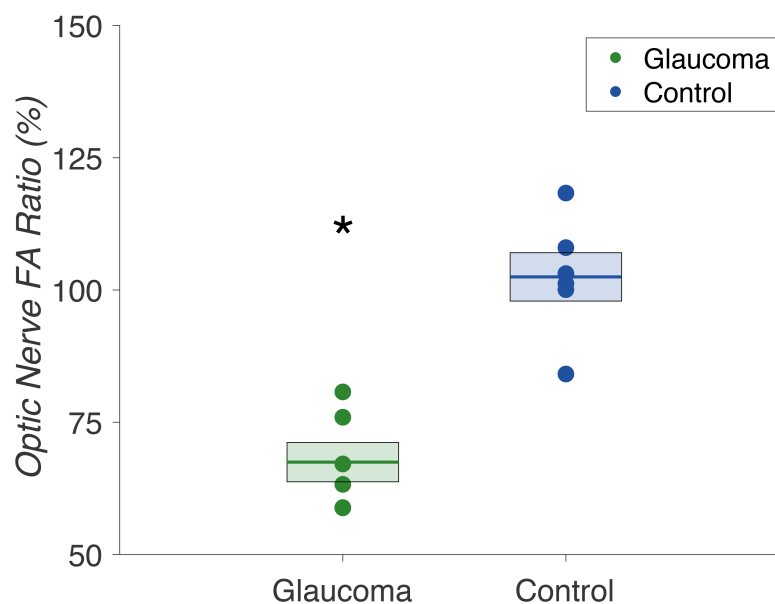
292  
293 **Fig 4. Advanced versus mild glaucomatous optic nerve (ON) tract profiles.** Average tract profiles for  
294 the ONs of 6 eyes with advanced (red) and 6 eyes with mild (blue) glaucoma, with the middle 80% of

295 samples marked with bold lines, and each 10% bin marked with dotted lines. Significant differences ( $p <$   
296 0.05) denoted by \*. (A) Differences in fractional anisotropy across the middle 80% of samples ( $p = 2.19e-$   
297 5), and in 3/8 individual bins ( $p_1 = 2.20e-5$ ;  $p_2 = 0.0016$ ;  $p_3 = 0.0072$ ). (B) Difference in mean diffusivity  
298 in 1/8 bins ( $p = 0.0080$ ). (C) Differences in radial diffusivity across the middle 80% ( $p = 0.047$ ), and in  
299 3/8 individual bins ( $p_1 = 0.0026$ ,  $p_2 = 0.0498$ ,  $p_3 = 0.038$ ). (D) Difference in axial diffusivity was not  
300 significant (all  $p > 0.05$ ).

301

302 To more precisely characterize the nature of these within-subject effects, we compared  
303 the FA ratios of advanced/mild ONs in glaucoma patients to non-dominant/dominant ONs in  
304 controls. We found selective FA reductions in the “advanced” ONs of glaucoma patients. As  
305 expected, there were no significant differences between non-dominant and dominant ON FA  
306 values in control subjects. We found a significant difference between the ON FA ratios of  
307 glaucoma patients compared to controls in a LME model including group and age as fixed  
308 factors ( $F(1,9) = 20.276$ ,  $p = 0.0015$ ) (Fig 5).

309



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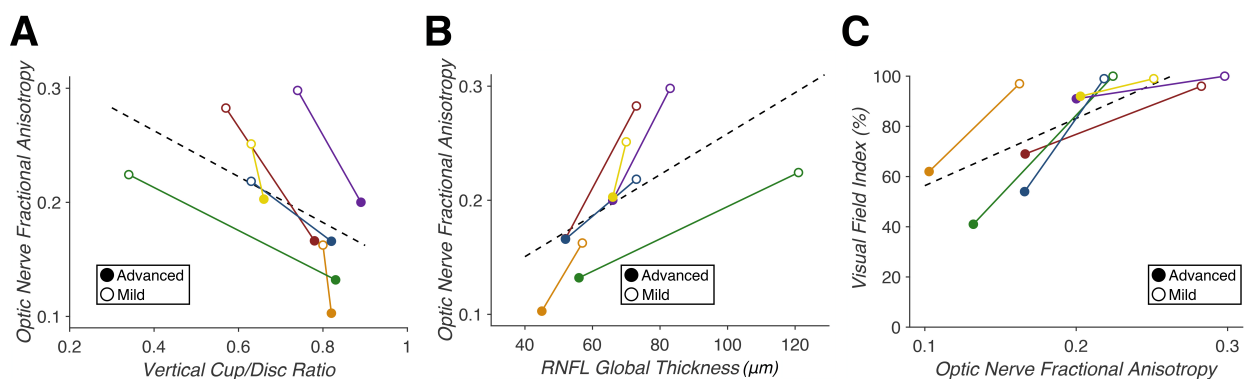
311 **Fig 5. Optic nerve fractional anisotropy ratios in glaucoma patients (n=6) and controls (n=6).**  
312 Comparison of optic nerve fractional anisotropy ratios (%) in glaucoma patients (green) and controls  
313 (blue). Glaucoma patient ratios were calculated for “advanced” / “mild” optic nerve fractional anisotropy,  
314 and control subject ratios were calculated for non-dominant/dominant optic nerve fractional anisotropy.  
315 Mean ratios are indicated by the bold lines, with standard error denoted by the surrounding box. We  
316 found a significant difference between fractional anisotropy ratios in glaucoma patients versus controls ( $p$   
317 = 0.0015).

318

## 319 Relating dMRI to Clinical Measures in Glaucoma

320 Reductions in ON FA were found to correlate with clinical measures of glaucoma (vCD,  
321 RNFL, and VFI). We found that vCD predicted ON FA ( $F(1,10) = 11.061$ ,  $p = 0.0077$ ,  $R^2 =$   
322 0.66), RNFL predicted ON FA ( $F(1,10) = 11.477$ ,  $p = 0.0069$ ,  $R^2 = 0.63$ ), and ON FA in turn  
323 predicted VFI ( $F(1,10) = 15.308$ ,  $p = 0.0029$ ,  $R^2 = 0.52$ ) (Fig 6). Thus, dMRI measures of white  
324 matter integrity in the optic nerve reliably linked the retinal and perceptual deficits observed in  
325 our patient sample.

326



327 **Fig 6. Correlation of dMRI fractional anisotropy with clinical measures of glaucoma (n=6). (A)**

328 Vertical cup-to-disc ratio predicts optic nerve fractional anisotropy ( $p = 0.0077$ ,  $R^2 = 0.66$ ). (B) Average

329 retinal nerve fiber layer thickness predicts optic nerve fractional anisotropy ( $p = 0.0069$ ,  $R^2 = 0.63$ ). (C)

330



331 Optic nerve fractional anisotropy predicts visual field index ( $p = 0.0029$ ,  $R^2 = 0.52$ ). Correlations within  
332 individual patients are indicated by each solid colored line, with closed points marking eyes with  
333 “advanced” glaucoma and open points marking eyes with “mild” glaucoma. A least-squares regression  
334 estimate is indicated by the dashed line.

335

## 336 **Discussion**

337 We assessed the utility of probabilistic DWI tractography in correlating neural and  
338 clinical measures of ON damage in patients with asymmetric glaucoma and normal controls. We  
339 isolated the ON white-matter pathway in 6/6 glaucoma patients and 6/6 controls. We combined  
340 AP and PA phase-encoded dMRI volumes to recover from imaging distortions caused by the  
341 adjacent nasal cavities. To our knowledge, this is the first probabilistic tractography study to  
342 successfully isolate the ONs in visually-impaired patients. Previous work relied largely on  
343 manual ON segmentation or ROI-based analyses, while our methodology allows the entire ON to  
344 be identified with minimal manual operator input. This technique increases the efficiency of data  
345 collection and reduces the risk of operator error. We correlated clinical measures of ON structure  
346 and function (i.e. vCD, RNFL, and VFI) with dMRI measures of ON integrity (i.e. FA, MD, RD,  
347 and AD). Our methods sample diffusion measures along the entire length of the ON (rather than  
348 small targeted regions) and provides a more comprehensive account of dMRI measures of  
349 disease.

350 We found significant differences in average FA, MD, and RD of ONs with “advanced”  
351 versus “mild” glaucoma. These trends (smaller FA and greater MD and RD in “advanced” ONs)  
352 indicate reduced integrity of the visual system consistent with clinical measures of glaucoma  
353 severity. Our findings are mostly consistent with earlier studies, which showed general trends of  
354 decreasing FA and increasing MD with increasing glaucoma severity [14-19]. However, there

355 was a significant difference in radial, but not axial diffusivity, which would suggest that  
356 glaucoma predominantly impacted myelination rather than axonal degeneration of ONs with  
357 advanced glaucoma. This result differs from previous work, where changes were noted in both  
358 RD and AD [16]. This discrepancy may be the result of differences in diffusion sequence  
359 parameters but is most likely the result of our small sample size.

360 To minimize the impact of the small sample size and the difference in mean age between  
361 our glaucoma patients and controls in this study, we primarily relied on within-subjects  
362 comparisons. Through ratio comparison of ON FA ratios in glaucoma patients to controls, we  
363 determined that these structural changes were not global changes in the ONs of glaucoma  
364 patients, but rather unilateral changes in the “advanced” glaucomatous eyes.

365 Lastly, we examined the correlation between clinical glaucoma measures (vCD, RNFL,  
366 and VFI) and dMRI neural measures (ON FA). We found that vCD and RNFL were correlated  
367 with ON FA and that ON FA was predictive of VFI. Thus, our analysis confirms and quantifies  
368 correlations between measures of glaucoma-related damage between neural (ON FA), structural  
369 (vCD), retinal (RNFL), and functional (VFI) measures.

370 In summary, we correlated neural DWI measures and clinical glaucoma measurements in  
371 patients with asymmetric glaucoma damage. Our results using current dMRI methods agree with  
372 previous studies using older techniques and validate probabilistic tractography methods that  
373 assess deficits in the visual pathways of glaucoma patients. Future larger, prospective studies  
374 may evaluate dMRI as a possible diagnostic tool for glaucoma evaluation. In addition, studies  
375 quantifying the relationship between neural and clinical measures longitudinally may determine  
376 whether these methods may be useful for monitoring glaucoma progression and treatment  
377 efficacy.

378

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