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Q6 The impact of quality assurance assessment on diffusion tensor imaging outcomes in a large-scale population-based cohort

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A B S T R A C T

Background: Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) is applied in investigation of brain biomarkers for neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative disorders. However, the quality of DTI measurements, like other neuroimaging techniques, is susceptible to several confounding factors (e.g., motion, eddy currents), which have only recently come under scrutiny. These confounds are especially relevant in adolescent samples where data quality may be compromised in ways that confound interpretation of maturation parameters. The current study aims to leverage DTI data from the Philadelphia Neurodevelopmental Cohort (PNC), a sample of 1601 youths with ages of 8–21 who underwent neuroimaging, to: 1) establish quality assurance (QA) metrics for the automatic identification of poor DTI image quality; 2) examine the performance of these QA measures in an external validation sample; 3) document the influence of data quality on developmental patterns of typical DTI metrics.

Methods: All diffusion-weighted images were acquired on the same scanner. Visual QA was performed on all subjects completing DTI; images were manually categorized as Poor, Good, or Excellent. Four image quality metrics were automatically computed and used to predict manual QA status: Mean voxel intensity outlier count (MEANVOX), Maximum voxel intensity outlier count (MAXVOX), mean relative motion (MOTION) and temporal signal-to-noise ratio (TSNR). Classification accuracy for each metric was calculated as the area under the receiver-operating characteristic curve (AUC). A threshold was generated for each measure that best differentiated visual QA status and applied in a validation sample. The effects of data quality on sensitivity to expected age effects in this developmental sample were then investigated using the traditional MRI diffusion metrics: fractional anisotropy (FA) and mean diffusivity (MD). Finally, our method of QA is compared with DTIPrep.

Results: TSNR (AUC = 0.94) best differentiated Poor data from Good and Excellent data. MAXVOX (AUC = 0.88) best differentiated Good from Excellent DTI data. At the optimal threshold, 88% of Poor data and 91% Good/Excellent data were correctly identified. Use of these thresholds on a validation dataset (n = 374) indicated high accuracy. In the validation sample 83% of Poor data and 94% of Excellent data was identified using thresholds derived from the training sample. Both FA and MD were affected by the inclusion of poor data in an analysis of age, sex and race in a matched comparison sample. In addition, we show that the inclusion of poor data results in significant attenuation of the correlation between diffusion metrics (FA and MD) and age during a critical neurodevelopmental period. We find higher correspondence between our QA method and DTIPrep for Poor data, but we find our method to be more robust for apparently high-quality images.

Conclusion: Automated QA of DTI can facilitate large-scale, high-throughput quality assurance by reliably identifying both scanner and subject induced imaging artifacts. The results present a practical example of the confounding effects of artifacts on DTI analysis in a large population-based sample, and suggest that estimates of data quality should not only be reported but also accounted for in data analysis, especially in studies of development.

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60 Introduction

Q13 Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) is an important magnetic resonance
 62 imaging (MRI) technique in the investigation and identification of
 63 brain biomarkers in typical neurodevelopment, cognitive aging and
 64 neuropsychiatric syndromes. DTI is based on the quantification of the
 65 random Brownian motion of protons, which enables the measurement
 66 of the spatial organization of brain tissue (Basser et al., 1994; Le Bihan
 67 et al., 2001). Specifically, DTI provides contrasts that are sensitive to
 68 intra-voxel white matter microstructure (Basser and Pajevic, 2000)
 69 and produces results that are consistent with the major white matter
 70 pathways detailed in animal models and in retinotopic studies in the
 71 human brain (Conturo et al., 1999; Le Bihan, 2003). An extensive DTI lit-
 72 erature details findings in normal development (e.g., Ladouceur et al.,
 73 2012; Lenroot and Giedd, 2010; Oishi et al., 2013; Yoshida et al., 2013)
 74 and neuropsychiatric conditions, including schizophrenia (Roalf et al.,
 75 2015; Wheeler and Voineskos, 2014), autism (Konrad and Eickhoff,
 76 2010; Travers et al., 2012) and Alzheimer's disease (Radanovic et al.,
 77 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). Moreover, large consortia, such as the
 78 Human Connectome Project (Van Essen et al., 2012) and the Alzheimer's
 79 Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (Jack et al., 2010) rely on DTI data as a
 80 major outcome measure. However, DTI is not without practical challenges
 81 that affect the reliability and reproducibility of results (Le Bihan et al.,
 82 2006).

83 Neuroimaging data confounds, in particular head motion, are quite
 84 pertinent in human samples (Liu et al., 2015; Power et al., 2012), espe-
 85 cially children (Yoshida et al., 2013) and adolescents (Satterthwaite
 86 et al., 2012). For example, the confounding influence of head motion
 87 on resting-state functional connectivity has received substantial atten-
 88 tion (Power et al., 2012; Satterthwaite et al., 2012; Van Dijk et al.,
 89 2012). Similar effects are evident in structural MRI (Reuter et al.,
 90 2015) and pediatric DTI samples (Lauzon et al., 2013; Yoshida et al.,
 91 2013). DTI measurements, in general, are reliable as they are insensitive
 92 to B₁ errors, however, DTI is strongly dependent on gradient calibration
 93 and errors in gradient amplitude, direction and linearity, can contribute
 94 to inaccurate measurement (Conturo et al., 1995). Nonetheless, the
 95 influence of data quality using DTI is understudied and often ignored.
 96 Beyond head motion, the quality of DTI measurements is susceptible
 97 to several confounds including eddy currents, scanner artifacts (e.g.,
 98 noise spikes) and susceptibility artifacts (Anderson, 2001; Bastin et al.,
 99 1998; Skare et al., 2000), which have come under scrutiny (Heim
 Q14 et al., 2004; Jones et al., 1999, 2013; Lauzon et al., 2013; Owens et al.,
 2012; Tournier et al., 2011; Yendiki et al., 2014), and are the focus of
 101 several new methods seeking to mitigate their impact (Li et al., 2013,
 102 2014; Oguz et al., 2014). These confounds likely contribute to inaccura-
 103 cies in the tensor fitting of DTI data (Le Bihan et al., 2006). For example,
 104 head-motion was found to induce group differences between autistic
 105 and typically developing children in DTI (Yendiki et al., 2014). Most im-
 106 portantly, the use of head-motion as a nuisance regressor during statisti-
 107 cal modeling reduced this effect. Yet, most developmental and clinical
 108 studies using DTI fail to report procedures for quality control and its im-
 109 pact on results. It is likely that unaccounted for artifacts result in subop-
 110 timal tensor estimation and thus may negatively influence commonly
 111 derived DTI metrics, such as fractional anisotropy, mean diffusivity,
 112 and estimates of tractography. In addition, because data quality is
 113 often systematically related to a phenotype of interest (e.g., age, diagno-
 114 sis, cognition, symptom severity) and that data quality is inherently
 115 subject dependent (e.g., correlation between age and motion), low
 116 quality data has the potential to obscure the presence of real effects or
 117 produce spurious associations with study phenotypes.

118 Despite such dangers, automated measures for quality assurance
 119 (QA) of DTI data remain limited. Manual inspection of multivolume
 120 DTI data is time consuming, subjective and potentially susceptible to op-
 121 erator bias, and translates poorly to large-scale imaging studies. Studies
 122 of noise in DTI provide a useful framework for identifying how such
 123 noise affects diffusion properties (Ding et al., 2005; Farrell et al., 2007;

Hasan, 2007; Skare et al., 2000). Several recent studies indicate promise
 125 for implementing automatically derived quality assurance metrics that
 126 reduce the amount of manual QA effort, including measures of signal-
 127 to-noise and the use of outlier detection, to quantify data quality prior
 128 to image processing (Lauzon et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013, 2014; Oguz
 129 et al., 2014). However, much of this work has used relatively small
 130 samples or simulated data, and none have focused primarily on a
 131 neurodevelopment sample (although Lauzon et al., 2013 present
 132 data in a large pediatric sample). Finally, there is lack of corrobor-
 133 ation of derived metrics in a validation sample.

The overall goal of the current study is to determine which image QA
 135 metrics are most reliable in the automatic detection of poor DTI data.
 136 We manually evaluate over 1500 DTI data sets from the Philadelphia
 137 Neurodevelopmental Cohort (PNC; (Gur et al., 2014; Satterthwaite
 138 et al., 2014), and automatically derive QA measures. This approach
 139 will be useful in the current cross-sectional sample, in concurrent or
 140 longitudinal studies, and generalizable to most DTI studies. Importantly,
 141 all DTI data in the PNC was acquired within a 30-month period using the
 142 same MRI scanner, head-coil and DTI protocol. In addition, 25% of the
 143 sample returned for a follow-up DTI scan approximately two years
 144 later, thus providing a unique validation sample. Our goals are: 1) lever-
 145 age DTI data from the PNC, a sample of 1601 youth between the age of
 146 8–21 who underwent neuroimaging, to determine automated quality
 147 assurance metrics that will aid in the automatic identification of poor
 148 DTI image quality; 2) test these QA measures in a follow-up sample;
 149 and, 3) determine the influence of data quality on typical DTI metrics
 150 (e.g., FA and MD), 4) measure changes introduced by including poor
 151 data in the correlations between FA/MD and age and 5) compare our
 152 QA processes to a previous published DTI QA tool, DTIPrep (Oguz
 153 et al., 2014). As described below, results indicate automated QA of DTI
 154 can facilitate large-scale, high-throughput analysis by reliably identify-
 155 ing poor quality data and systematically improving data fidelity. 156

Materials & methods 157

Participants 158

Initial sample 159

All participants included in this study were enrolled in the PNC
 160 (Calkins et al., 2014, 2015; Gur et al., 2014; Satterthwaite et al., 2014).
 161 The PNC is a large community-based epidemiological sample of 9498
 162 youths, aged 8–21, who underwent clinical and cognitive evaluations.
 163 A subset of 1000 subjects received multimodal neuroimaging as part
 164 of the initial PNC project. An additional 601 individuals underwent the
 165 identical neuroimaging protocol as part of extension of the PNC. Data
 166 from 244 individuals was considered unusable (Fig. 1). Accordingly,
 167 1357 individuals comprise the initial sample that received the same
 168 neuroimaging protocol (Table 1). These data were acquired between
 169 2009 and 2012. A description of the PNC is available in: [http://www.
 170 med.upenn.edu/bbl/projects/pnc/PhiladelphiaNeurodevelopmental
 171 Cohort.shtml](http://www.med.upenn.edu/bbl/projects/pnc/PhiladelphiaNeurodevelopmentalCohort.shtml) and the data is available from the National Institutes of
 172 Health – dbGaP (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gap>). 173

Validation sample 174

Four hundred and four individuals (Table 2) returned approximately
 175 two years later and underwent the same neuroimaging procedures. Of
 176 note, these individuals were selected to return based upon successful
 177 completion and high data fidelity of a structural scan during the initial
 178 study. DTI quality during the initial study was not a factor in enrollment
 179 for follow-up. Thirty individuals did not complete a follow-up DTI scan.
 180 Thus, the final sample was 374. These data were collected between 2012
 181 and 2013. 182

All enrolled subjects provided informed consent at each visit, or for
 183 minors informed assent in addition to parental or guardian consent.
 184 The Institutional Review Boards of the University of Pennsylvania and
 185 Children's Hospital of Philadelphia approved all procedures. 186

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