

# Machine Learning for Brain Imaging Genomics

## Methods: A Review

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**Abstract:** In the past decade, multimodal neuroimaging and genomic techniques have been increasingly developed. As an interdisciplinary topic, brain imaging genomics is devoted to evaluating and characterizing genetic variants in individuals that influence phenotypic measures derived from structural and functional brain imaging. This technique is capable of revealing the complex mechanisms by macroscopic intermediates from the genetic level to cognition and psychiatric disorders in humans. It is well known that machine learning is a powerful tool in the data-driven association studies, which can fully utilize priori knowledge (intercorrelated structure information among imaging and genetic data) for association modelling. In addition, the association study is able to find the association between risk genes and brain structure or function so that a better mechanistic understanding of behaviors or disordered brain functions is explored. In this paper, the related background and fundamental work in imaging genomics are first reviewed. Then, we show the univariate learning approaches for association analysis, summarize the main idea and modelling in genetic-imaging association studies based on multivariate machine learning, and present methods for joint association analysis and outcome prediction. Finally, this paper discusses some prospects for future work.

**Keywords:** Brain imaging genomics, machine learning, multivariate analysis, association analysis, outcome prediction.

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## 1 Introduction

In recent years, with the development of cognitive neuroscience, neuroimaging has brought new vitality to the study of the working mechanism of the human brain. At the same time, with the development of noninvasive brain imaging technology, researchers hope to gain new insights into the imaging characteristics and molecular mechanisms of the brain, as well as their impact on normal and disordered brain function and behavior. Commonly used brain imaging techniques include structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), diffusion tensor imaging (DTI), and positron emission tomography imaging (PET). In addition, with the development of genetic technology, researchers can identify genetic markers associated with neurological and psychiatric diseases from a more refined molecular level (such as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)).

With recent technological advances in acquiring mul-

timodal brain imaging data and high-throughput genomics data, brain imaging genomics is emerging as a rapidly growing research field. Hariri and Weinberger<sup>[1]</sup> proposed the concept of imaging genomics or imaging genetics, which performs integrative studies that analyse genetic variations, such as SNPs, as well as epigenetic and copy number variations (CNVs), molecular features captured by various omics data, and brain imaging quantitative traits (QTs), coupled with other biomarker, clinical, and environmental data<sup>[2, 3]</sup>.

As an emerging data science, brain imaging genomics has achieved rapid growth, which is greatly attributed to the public availability of valuable imaging and genomics datasets. Due to the open-science nature of the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) project<sup>[4]</sup>, hundreds of publications using ADNI imaging genomics data have been produced in the past decade, yielding innovative machine learning methods and novel biomedical discoveries. Similar to the ADNI, an increasing number of landmark studies are producing big data, including multi-dimensional imaging and omics modalities, making them available to the research community. These include the Enhancing Neuro Imaging Genetics through Meta Analysis (ENIGMA) Consortium<sup>[5]</sup>, Philadelphia Neurodevel-

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opmental Cohort (PNC)<sup>[6]</sup> and Parkinson's Progression Markers Initiative (PPMI)<sup>[7]</sup>.

Brain imaging genomics mainly uses brain imaging technology to evaluate the genetic influence on individuals by using brain structure and function as phenotypes, and explores how genes affect the neural structure and function of the brain, as well as the resulting neurological pathology. Studying the association between genetics and brain structure and function, and building a visible bridge between "genes and brain", can better reveal the pathogenesis of neuropsychiatric diseases<sup>[8–10]</sup>. Imaging genomics can also identify biological indicators or endophenotypes of a brain disease, which provides a more accurate method for predicting and diagnosing the disease. Specifically, most researchers consider SNPs as genotype data for association analysis. In the acquisition of endophenotypic data, researchers mostly use brain imaging data (i.e., MRI) in clinic for analysis. For example, sMRI, an imaging technique that measures the structural organization of the brain, can quantify abnormalities in morphology (i.e., gray matter volume). fMRI scans have been shown to be effective in revealing functional connectivity patterns of the brain. Based on different modalities of brain imaging technology, at present, imaging genomics mainly focuses on the association analysis between gene SNPs and brain structure, function, and connectivity<sup>[11–14]</sup>.

Early imaging genomics approaches consisted of univariate paired statistical analysis methods, where multiple tests are employed to find the association between SNPs or genes and complex diseases or measurable quantitative traits (QTs). Genome-wide association study (GWAS) uses the whole genome high-throughput sequencing technology to classify the sequence variation in the genome of the research object, and finally selects significant SNPs via the biostatistics methods and bioinformatics methods<sup>[15]</sup>. Since the first GWAS research paper on age-related macular degeneration published in *Science* in 2005<sup>[16]</sup>, this method has been used in the analysis of psychiatric disorders<sup>[17]</sup>. GWAS has played a great role in the study of imaging genetics, but there are also some problems, such as strict multiple correction, so that many small effect variants cannot pass the correction level. In addition, GWAS can only obtain a single degree of association between genetic variation and traits, and cannot well explain the complex molecular mechanisms of the brain.

In recent years, with the rapid development of machine learning in academia and industry, researchers have tried to use these data analysis tools to solve some problems in many fields. In the association analysis of imaging genetics, in addition to univariate statistical analysis, the multivariate machine learning model is the most widely used, and it has identified disease-sensitive imaging and genetic biomarkers. Internationally, some schol-

ars have also written a review of related methods in imaging genetics. For example, Medland et al.<sup>[18]</sup> have raised the problems and challenges of using traditional univariate statistical models to process large-scale genome-wide brain imaging association analysis, reviewing the research results in different central databases. Liu and Calhoun<sup>[19]</sup> summarized the application of other multivariate methods such as independent component analysis in imaging genetics. Thompson et al.<sup>[20]</sup> focused on the association analysis between genetics and brain structure connectivity and functional networks. Based on the above review works, this article is devoted to providing comprehensive and up-to-date coverage of machine learning methods in brain imaging genomics. Fig. 1 is adopted to present a schematic of the topics covered in brain imaging genomics. One of the main goals of imaging genomics based on machine learning is to realize association analysis studies for understanding mechanisms and pathways. We group these imaging genomics based on machine learning methods into two categories. The first category mainly uses regression models to identify complex multi-SNP and/or multi-QT associations. Most of the regression models discussed earlier can be described using the regularized loss function framework. A sparsity-inducing regularization term is often included in these models. The motivations are twofold. First, it is reasonable to hypothesize that only a small number of markers are relevant in the resulting imaging genomics association. The sparsity term can help identify these relevant markers. Second, the sparsity constraint can reduce the model complexity and subsequently reduce the risk of overfitting. In addition to regression models, another category of prominent methods developed for brain imaging genomics studies are correlation models, such as sparse canonical correlation analysis (SCCA)<sup>[21–23]</sup> and parallel-independent component analysis (pICA)<sup>[24, 25]</sup>. Similar to the regression model discussed earlier, the sparsity is encouraged in these correlation models to reduce model complexity and the risk of overfitting, as well as identify relevant biomarkers. Overall, this article is focused on the three types of learning problems as follows. First, we will show the limitations of the univariate imaging genetics association analysis and show the univariate learning approaches for correlation analysis. Second, we will present the problem of multivariate imaging genetics association analysis and summarize the main idea and modelling in genetic-imaging association studies based on multivariate machine learning. Third, we will review methods that are used to predict an outcome of interest by combining both imaging and genomics data, and methods for joint association analysis and outcome prediction. Finally, some unsolved problems in genetic imaging and future research directions are prospected.

## 2 Univariate analysis method

The statistical analysis of single-genetic variables usu-

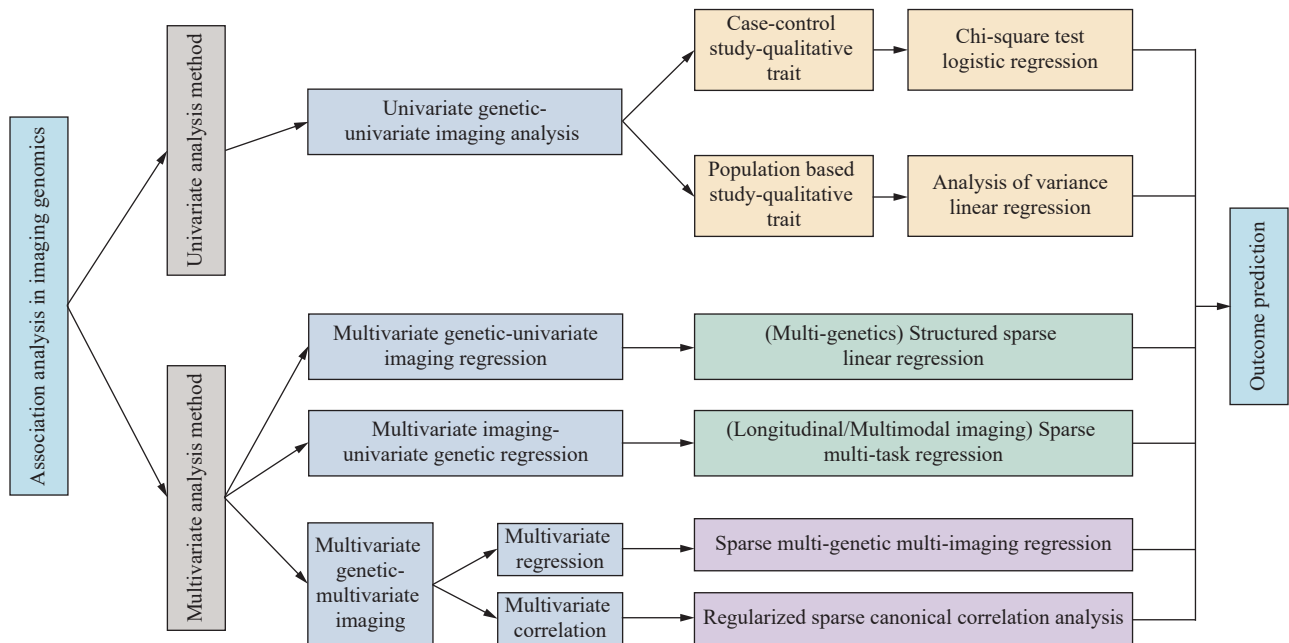


Fig. 1 Schematic of topics covered in brain imaging genomics. The goal is to present association analysis in imaging genetics based on machine learning.

ally adopts the Pearson’s chi-square test for the experimental group and the control group as the allele detection method. That is, to confirm whether the locus is associated with a genetic risk factor by analysing whether there are statistical differences between the corresponding genomic loci of a group of patients with various diseases and a group of normal controls. Imaging genetics analysis based on univariate statistical methods can use linear regression and analysis of variance models as allele association analysis methods<sup>[26]</sup>. In addition, for the multiple univariate models, firstly,  $p \times q$  linear regression models ( $y_j = \beta_{jk}x_k$ , where  $p$  is the gene feature dimension and  $q$  is the imaging feature dimension) are fitted. Then,  $p \times q$  null hypotheses ( $H_0 : \beta_{jk} = 0$ ) are tested. Finally, the  $p$ -values are sorted to select the smaller  $p$ -values. For example, in 2009, Potkin et al.<sup>[27]</sup> performed a genome-wide association study (GWAS) on patients, normal controls, and imaging phenotypes. That is, the effect of SNPs on quantitative phenotypes of brain areas can be calculated by a generalized linear model, which is constructed by imaging phenotypes, disease diagnosis and gene data. The expression is as follows:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1SNP + b_2APOEe4 + b_3gender + b_4age + b_5diagnosis + b_6SNP \times diagnosis + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

where  $Y$  denotes the neuroimaging QT,  $b_i$  represents the coefficient of each variable, and  $SNP \times diagnosis$  represents the interaction relationship. The  $p$ -value obtained is the association result between SNP and QT<sup>[27]</sup>.

In the univariate imaging genetics association analysis,

according to different scales<sup>[28]</sup>, we summarize as follows: for the genetic level, it includes 1) candidate genetics/SNPs<sup>[29–32]</sup>, 2) related biological functions characteristic pathways/networks<sup>[33–35]</sup>, 3) whole genome<sup>[27, 36–39]</sup>. For the brain imaging level, it includes 1) individual regions of interest (ROI)<sup>[27, 29, 33, 36]</sup>, 2) multiple ROI<sup>[30, 34, 37]</sup>, 3) whole brain<sup>[31, 32, 35, 38, 39]</sup>. Whether it is the association analysis between candidate genetic locus SNP and neuroimaging<sup>[40]</sup> (cerebrospinal fluid<sup>[41]</sup>, cognitive score<sup>[42]</sup>, and any other QT), or the association analysis between whole genome and neuroimaging or even the association analysis between whole genome and smaller voxel-wise brain imaging, linear regression and analysis of variance can solve the problems of imaging genetics association analysis at different scales. In addition, some researchers have released relevant statistical analysis software, such as Plink<sup>[43]</sup>.

GWAS genetic statistical analysis needs to find the association with disease phenotypes from millions or even tens of millions of SNPs. Although the Bonferroni correction can be used to strictly control the significance<sup>[44, 45]</sup>, this strategy will lead to many small effect variations that cannot pass the correction level, and multiple such small effect variations may act together to have a great impact on the traits. The application of univariate analysis methods in imaging genetics has a more intuitive explanation, and can simply and quickly detect the association between a single SNP and a single QT. However, due to the high-dimensional characteristics of data variables, a large number of multiple comparisons eventually make the statistical test results not significant, and the above test method is based on a strict hypothesis. That is, genetic loci or imaging characteristic variables are statistic-

ally independent, while the important information of the association between variables is ignored. Therefore, for high-dimensional features, the univariate approach still has some limitations in dealing with the problem of imaging genetics association analysis.

### 3 Multivariate analysis method

Following the univariate voxel-wise genome-wide association analysis (vGWAS)<sup>[39]</sup>, Hibar et al.<sup>[46, 47]</sup> proposed a multivariate voxel-wise gene-wide association study (vGeneWAS), which solves the problem of variable collinearity by principal components regression (PCReg) to all SNPs in a genome. Specifically, principal component analysis (PCA) was first used to obtain the mutually orthogonal factors that maximize the variance on the SNP regression variable set. Then, the standard partial F-test was used on these orthogonal factors. Finally, following the related work proposed by Stein et al.<sup>[39]</sup> in 2010, the same genetic and brain imaging dataset were used to group SNPs and detect the association between grouped SNPs with voxel-wise imaging. Experimental results show that this method achieves better association performance and reduces the number of statistical tests. Therefore, in order to enhance the ability to detect the association between genetics and quantitative traits (QTs), some researchers have used multivariate methods to address the association of multi-genetic or multi-locus combined effects in imaging genetics<sup>[19, 48]</sup>. Recently, research on machine learning based imaging genetics has attracted much attention, which aims to identify the association between genetics and imaging features by using regression models. We can use different criteria to divide these methods into regression models (including multivariate genetic-univariate imaging regression, multivariate imaging-univariate genetic regression, and multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression) and correlation models (i.e., multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging correlation). In the next subsection, several classic and state-of-the-art association models will be introduced by the above division strategy.

#### 3.1 Regression models

##### 3.1.1 Multivariate genetic-univariate imaging regression

We usually use a sparse regularized regression model to realize multivariate genetic-univariate imaging regression. The main motivation is twofold. First, assuming that only a few markers are associated with imaging genomics, sparse terms assist to identify these related markers. Second, sparse constraints can reduce the complexity of the model and the risk of overfitting. In <sup>[49, 50]</sup>, regression models based on L1 norm penalty constraints have been successfully applied to multivariate genetic data analysis. They aim to identify sparse SNP loci that

are highly associated with specific brain regions. These models provide a general technical framework to deal with the small sample regression problem of detecting and identifying high-dimensional genetic SNPs. However, the constraints based on the L1 norm do not fully consider the structural relationship between the feature variables, therefore the optimal regression results cannot be achieved in theory. Considering the spatial structure relationship between SNP features, Silver et al.<sup>[51–53]</sup> proposed the group sparse model or fusion sparse model to select SNP loci in the same group or adjacent feature variables, and the models based on group sparsity or fusion sparse are as follows:

$$\min_w \|y - Xw\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^g \sqrt{\sum_{j \in G(i)} w_j^2} \quad (2)$$

$$\min_w \|y - Xw\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i < j} |w_i - w_j| \quad (3)$$

where these two equations are utilized for identifying a set of SNPs from  $X$  and predicting a single imaging phenotype  $y$ . In (2),  $w_j$  in the group sparsity term represents all the SNP loci features belonging to the group  $G(i)$ , and the goal is to control the selected loci to include the characteristics of clustering. For example, there will be a linkage disequilibrium (LD) effect<sup>[54]</sup> between gene loci, that is, SNPs linked on different genes will appear in the same LD block nonrandomly. This provides domain knowledge for the feature selection model based on group sparsity so that SNPs in the same LD group can be detected simultaneously. In (3), the fusion Lasso term can control the weight contribution of adjacent position features  $w_i$  and  $w_j$  to be as similar as possible, that is, the feature variables selected by the fusion Lasso term have spatial continuity. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample.

In addition, there is not only a flat spatial relationship between SNP loci, but also a hierarchical relationship in the actual gene structure. For example, in a certain pathway, the interaction of specific gene loci can affect protein synthesis and functional transformation, and some SNP loci under the same gene also have certain correlations (such as LD). Therefore, making full use of the prior knowledge of this hierarchical structure to perform the imaging genetic analysis will often reduce the error in the regression analysis and learn more explanatory feature patterns<sup>[55–57]</sup>, as shown in Fig. 2. As shown, the model uses a tree-guided sparse learning (TGSL) method to identify the association between genotype and phenotype. When constructing a tree structure, the SNP loci are used as leaf nodes, the LD block and the gene block are used as intermediate nodes, and all genes in the pathway are used as the final root nodes. The structure tree has  $d$  layers and each layer has  $n_i$  nodes. The node of the

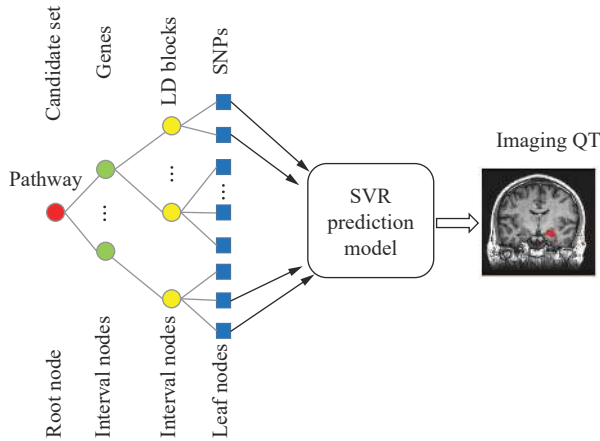


Fig. 2 Tree-guided sparse regression model, which aims to identify a set of SNPs for predicting a single imaging phenotype<sup>[55–57]</sup>.

$i$ -th layer is  $\{G_1^i, \dots, G_j^i, \dots, G_{n_i}^i\}$ , and the tree-guided sparse regression model is as follows:

$$\min_w \|y - Xw\|_2^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \alpha_j^i \|w_{G_j^i}\|_2 \quad (4)$$

which also aims to identify a set of SNPs for predicting a single imaging phenotype  $y$ .  $\alpha_j^i$  is the weight of any node  $G_j^i$  predefined according to prior knowledge.  $w_{G_j^i}$  is the weight of any node  $G_j^i$  in the learned tree structure. It is worth noting that when the weight of a node is zero, its child nodes are all zero, that is, all the features of the subtree have nothing to do with the regression task and are not selected. Compared with the traditional Lasso method, the SNPs obtained by the optimization of the model have smaller errors in predicting the gray matter volume of the brain, and these SNP loci associated with MRI brain regions have a hierarchical clustering. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify sparse SNP patterns at the block level to better guide the biological interpretation.

**3.1.2 Multivariate imaging-univariate genetic regression**

In research on machine learning based imaging genetics, most of the works have focused on discovering and detecting multivariate SNP loci associated with imaging phenotypes. However, few studies have explored how SNP values change when phenotypic measurement variables change, that is, using multivariate imaging to regress univariate genetic features. For example, Shen et al.<sup>[38]</sup> proposed a task-related time series multivariate sparse regression model based on the group structure information between prediction variables. The model is as follows:

$$\min_W \sum_t^T \|Y - X_t^T W_t\|_F^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{k=1}^d \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^T \|w_t^k\|_2^2} + \lambda_2 \text{Tr}(W W^T)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (5)$$

where brain imaging data is  $X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_T\} \in \mathbf{R}^{d \times n \times T}$ , SNP data is  $Y = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times c}$ , and  $w_t^k$  represents the  $k$ -th row of the coefficient matrix  $W_t$  at time  $t$ .  $\text{Tr}(\cdot)$  is the trace of the matrix. The tensor coefficient matrix is  $W = \{W_1, W_2, \dots, W_T\} \in \mathbf{R}^{d \times c \times T}$ . The tensor coefficient matrix reveals the time series of brain imaging QTs. When  $c = 1$ , the algorithm is the association between time series imaging MRI and risk genes, as shown in Fig. 3. It can be found, through the joint constraints of feature weights in multiple regression tasks and multiple time points, task-related longitudinal imaging phenotype markers can be selected. This model performs a new perspective from phenotype to genotype analysis to study the impact of individual genes on changes in brain structure and function. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample.

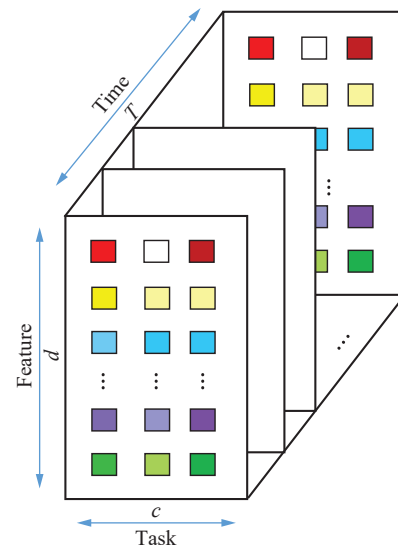


Fig. 3 Task-correlated longitudinal sparse regression model, which aims to study the impact of individual genes on changes in brain structure and function<sup>[38]</sup>

In addition, in univariate genetic-multivariate imaging association analysis, most studies focused on the single modal imaging phenotype QT. In order to study the association between genetics and multimodal brain imaging QTs, Hao et al.<sup>[58, 59]</sup> realized the association analysis between multimodal imaging QTs  $Y$  and candidate risk gene loci  $x$  by introducing the group sparse regularization term to construct the diagnosis-guided multimodal (DGMM) regression model (see Fig. 4) as

$$\min_W \sum_m^M \|x - Y_m w_m\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_i \sqrt{\sum_j w_{ij}^2} + \lambda_2 R(w) \quad (6)$$

where  $W = [w_{VBM}, w_{FDG}, w_{AV45}] \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times 3}$  ( $j = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $i = \{1, \dots, q\}$ ) is the association weight matrix of multimodal imaging QTs (VBM, FDG, AV45, where VBM is voxel-based morphometry obtained by prepro-

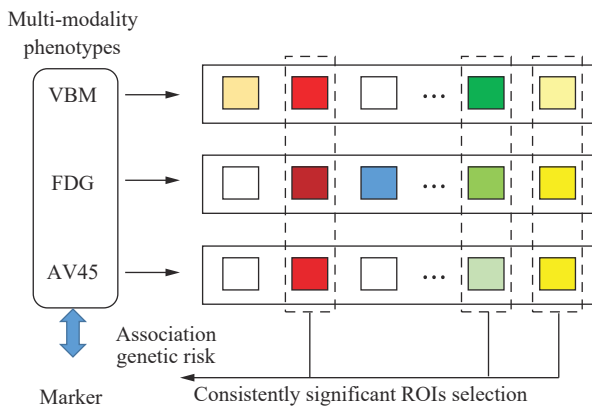


Fig. 4 Multi-modality association model<sup>[58, 59]</sup>. The goal of the regression model is to realize the association analysis between multimodal imaging QTs and candidate risk gene loci.

cessing structural magnetic resonance imaging data. FDG is the fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography. AV45 is the F-18 florbetapir PET scans amyloid imaging.) and candidate risk gene APOE e4. The second term is the group sparse regularization term.  $R(w)$  is the Laplacian regularization term. This method realizes the feature selection of multimodal imaging biomarkers associated with risk genes through a generalized linear regression function. The multimodality association method can identify robust consistent brain regions and has strong antinoise ability compared with the single-modality association method. Therefore, this method can be applied to the association analysis between other risk genes and multimodal imaging QTs. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample, where the response is the APOE e4 SNP and the predictors include three modalities of ROI measures: 1) VBM measure from structural MRI, 2) FDG measure from PET, and 3) AV45 measure from PET. For example, Wang et al.<sup>[60]</sup> presented a diagnosis-aligned multimodal (DAMM) strategy for the regression of a candidate risk gene APOE e4  $x$  on multimodal imaging QTs  $Y_m$  (VBM measure from structural MRI and hypergraph-based clustering coefficient measure from fMRI) as follows:

$$\min_W \sum_m^M \|x - Y_m w_m\|_2^2 + \lambda_1 R_1(w) + \lambda_2 R_2(w) \quad (7)$$

where  $R_1(w)$  is the same group sparse regularization term as (6) so as to jointly select a few features associated with risk SNP loci in multimodal brain imaging QTs.  $R_2(w)$  is the graph Laplacian regularization term to fully use the information between different modalities. The model uses structural voxel information and network connection information as an intermediate feature of bridging risk gene locus and disease status to find the disease-specific associations between the risk SNPs and the brain network. It is worth noting that this work is an initial

attempt to explore the relationship between connectivity traits and genetic variation. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample, where the response is the APOE e4 SNP and the predictors include two modalities of ROI measures: 1) VBM measure from structural MRI and 2) hypergraph-based clustering coefficient measure from fMRI.

### 3.1.3 Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression

The above multivariate analysis of SNP loci is only aimed at the regression of imaging univariate features, and can not make full use of the correlation among imaging multivariate features. In recent years, methods have been introduced for the analysis of high dimensional genetic and imaging data able to cope with multivariate genetic input and multivariate imaging output. Some researches have used sparse regression<sup>[61]</sup> to discover a low-dimensional subset of genetic data significantly associated with the imaging QT in the original high-dimensional data<sup>[48]</sup>. For example, Vounou et al.<sup>[62]</sup> proposed a sparse reduced-rank regression (SRRR) model as follows:

$$\min_{A, B} \|Y - XBA^T\|_F^2 + \lambda_1 \|A\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|B\|_1 \quad (8)$$

where  $W = BA^T$  and  $W$  denote the product of a matrix  $B \in p \times r$  and a matrix  $A \in q \times r$ . The major goal of the model is to find the minimization of the rank of  $W$ . The L1 norm is imposed on  $A$  and  $B$  to sparsely select features. Fig. 5 presents a visual framework of the sparse reduced rank regression model. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample.

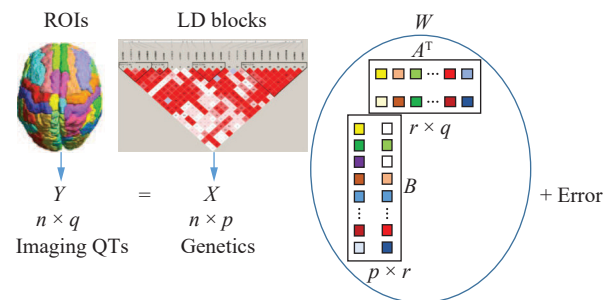


Fig. 5 Sparse reduced rank regression model. The goal is to identify a set of SNPs from  $X$  to predict a set of Alzheimer's disease (AD)-related imaging QT  $Y$ <sup>[62]</sup>.

After that, Vounou et al.<sup>[62]</sup> improved their previous work. Specifically, first, the discriminant analysis method was used in the structural brain imaging QTs to find the discriminant multivariate biomarker as the phenotype, and the existing SRRR model was then used for genome-wide association analysis, which finally achieved good results<sup>[63]</sup>. Subsequently, Silver et al.<sup>[64]</sup> presented a pathways sparse reduced-rank regression (P-SRRR) method, which integrates the pathways group lasso with adaptive weights (P-GLAW) idea into the SRRR method, i.e.,

$$\min_{A,B} \|Y - XBA^T\|_F^2 + \lambda \sum_{g \in G} d_g \|B_g\| \tag{9}$$

where  $G$  is defined as the grouping structure of  $B$ . This model identifies a set of SNPs from  $X$ , so that a set of AD-related imaging QT  $Y$  can be predicted. The pathway knowledge is utilized to group the SNPs for the sake of selecting features at the pathway level. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample.

In addition, some work considers multivariate multi-task regression models<sup>[52]</sup>. For example, Wang et al.<sup>[65]</sup> proposed a group-sparse multi-task regression and feature selection (G-SMuRFS) strategy (see Fig. 6):

$$\min_W \|Y - XW\|_F^2 + \lambda_1 \sum_{k=1}^K \sqrt{\sum_{i \in \pi_k} \sum_j w_{ij}^2} + \lambda_2 \sum_i \sqrt{\sum_j w_{ij}^2} \tag{10}$$

where the second term considers the linkage disequilibrium (LD) structural relationship between SNP loci, embedding the prior information of the grouping relationship of SNPs, so that SNPs in the same LD group are detected simultaneously. The third term uses the same L21 norm in (6) as a regularization term, which is also used to jointly select a few features associated with risk SNP loci in multimodal brain imaging QTs. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample, where 1 224 SNPs from 37 AD genes were used to predict ten VBM measures and SNPs were grouped by LD blocks.

### 3.1.4 Discussions

In addition to regularized multivariate regression models in brain imaging genomics, many Bayesian algorithms have been presented. For instance, motivated by G-SMuRFS<sup>[65]</sup>, a Bayesian group sparse multitask regression (BGSMTMTR) model was constructed to identify multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression associations, and the group structure (e.g., LD blocks and genes) within the SNP data was simultaneously embraced. Compared with G-SMuRFS, which only provides a point estimate of the regression coefficients, the BGS-

MTR follows full posterior inference such as interval estimates for the regression parameters. This model can be viewed as an expansion of the Bayesian group lasso<sup>[66, 67]</sup> for accommodating multivariate responses and variable selection at the SNP and gene levels. In [68], a Bayesian generalized low-rank regression (GLRR) model was built to analyze high-dimensional imaging responses and covariates, which uses a low-rank representation for approximating the high-dimensional weight matrix. This GLRR model was further extended into a Bayesian longitudinal low-rank regression (L2R2) form [69] to examine genetic effects on longitudinal imaging responses.

The methods introduced in the above three subsections are collectively referred to as multivariate regression models. We only introduce some typical examples. Table 1 summarizes the multivariate regression methods used in the studies discussed in recent years. Such approaches are devoted to revealing complex imaging genomics associations between multivariate SNP data and imaging QT data. They share a common rationale: these methods all utilize a regularized regression model to identify the association between SNPs and imaging QTs. It should be noted that two common advantages are included in these models: 1) the regression coefficients directly capture the association between SNPs and imaging QTs, which is easy to interpret; 2) the genetic markers and imaging markers obtained by using a single model do not require multiple test corrections, increasing detection power. However, due to the high dimensionality of the data, there is an increased risk of overfitting these models. In order to remedy such deficiency, various regularization forms are added to reduce model complexity and biologically meaningful structures are introduced to decrease the risk of overfitting. For example, sparsity can simplify complexity models (i.e., G-SMuRFS and SRRR) by using the L1 or L21 norm. Biologically meaningful structures (i.e., LD and pathways) could be achieved via adopting group lasso or group L21 norm (i.e., P-GLAW and P-SRRR). Additionally, the low-rank constraint can be used as a regularization term (i.e., task-correlated longitudinal sparse regression (TCLSR) model, temporal structure autolearning (TSAL) model, and joint projec-

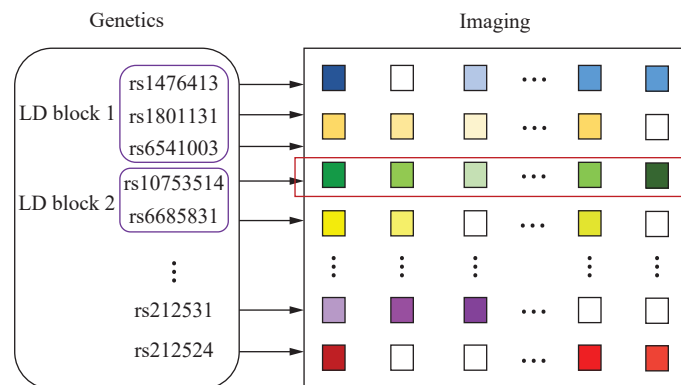


Fig. 6 Group-sparse multi-task regression and feature selection strategy, which is a structured sparse model<sup>[65]</sup>

Table 1 Example studies using multivariate regression, which aim to reveal complex imaging genomics associations between multivariate SNP data and imaging QT Data

Related studies	Method category	Dataset	Year	Publication
P-GLAW	Multivariate genetic-univariate imaging regression	ADNI	2012	<i>Statistical Applications in Genetics and Molecular Biology</i>
TGSL <sup>[56, 57]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-univariate imaging regression	ADNI	2019	<i>IEEE/ACM Transactions on Computational Biology and Bioinformatics</i>
TCLSR <sup>[70]</sup>	Multivariate imaging-univariate genetic	ADNI	2012	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
DGMM <sup>[58, 59]</sup>	Multivariate imaging-univariate genetic	ADNI	2016	<i>Neuroinformatics</i>
DAMM <sup>[60]</sup>	Multivariate imaging-univariate genetic	ADNI	2019	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
SRRR <sup>[62]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2010	<i>NeuroImage</i>
P-SRRR <sup>[64]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2012	<i>NeuroImage</i>
G-SMuRFS <sup>[65]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2012	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
TSAL <sup>[71]</sup>	Multivariate imaging-univariate genetic	ADNI	2018	<i>Journal of Computational Biology</i>
JPLSR <sup>[72]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2019	<i>IEEE Transactions on Biomedical Engineering</i>
S-SRRR <sup>[73]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2016	<i>Medical Image Computing and Computer-Assisted Intervention (MICCAI)</i>
GRS-SRRR <sup>[74]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2017	<i>IEEE Transactions on Big Data</i>
RGRS-SRRR <sup>[75]</sup>	Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging regression	ADNI	2018	<i>Neuroinformatics</i>

tion learning and sparse regression (JPLSR) model), which has a strong ability to handle spatial or temporal correlations and decrease model complexity.

## 3.2 Correlation models

### 3.2.1 Multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging correlation

In imaging genomics research, multivariate regression models have been able to solve the problem of feature selection. For multi-output variable features, the multi-task regression model<sup>[65, 76]</sup> can consider the covariance structure relationship among multiple regression output variables. However, the high-dimensional regression output will generate high computational time costs and the multivariate output structure is complex. The model that simply considers the group constraints of multiple regression tasks for association analysis is often too strict. In order to fully consider the covariance structure between two variables, Liu et al.<sup>[77, 78]</sup> proposed using the parallel independent component analysis (PICA) method to analyze the association mechanism between genetic and imaging data, so as to find the most relevant independent component of the two modal data. However, this method does not restore the contributing SNPs and important brain regions, resulting in the loss of reasonable biomarker interpretation of these components. Another bivariate model, such as canonical correlation analysis (CCA)<sup>[79, 80]</sup> or partial least squares regression least squares region (PLS)<sup>[81, 82]</sup> can find the linear combination of two group variables respectively, so that the correlation or covariance between genetics and imaging data

is the largest. This model can better solve the problem of multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging association analysis compared with the regression model. However, in high-dimensional data, feature variables often have noise and redundancy, that is, not all SNP and QT characteristic variables are associated. Therefore, in order to select a small number of relevant genetics and imaging features with explanatory significance, the sparsity is introduced into the classical bivariate correlation analysis, namely SCCA<sup>[21–23]</sup> and sparse partial least squares regression (SPLS)<sup>[83, 84]</sup>. Similar to the mentioned-above regression methods, the regularization is also encouraged in these correlation models. On the one hand, as is known, only a small amount of markers are relevant in the imaging genomics association, which can be effectively identified by the regularization terms. On the other hand, the regularization is capable of reducing the model complexity, so that over-fitting is avoided. Here, denote  $X \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times p}$  as the genetic data with  $p$  variables on  $n$  subjects, and  $Y \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times q}$  as the imaging data with  $q$  variables on  $n$  subjects, where all columns of  $X$  and  $Y$  have been normalized with zero mean and unit variance. As the most popular bivariate correlation models for brain imaging genomics, the SCCA and its expansion with various regularizers can be expressed by

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{u,v} u^T X^T Y v - \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i R_i(u, v) \\ \text{s.t. } \|Xu\|_2^2 = \|Yv\|_2^2 = 1. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

The goal is to find a linear combination of the SNPs



$Xu$  and a combination of the imaging QTs  $Yv$  for the sake of maximizing the correlation (i.e.,  $u^T X^T Y v$  s.t.  $\|Xu\|_2^2 = \|Yv\|_2^2 = 1$ ) on the condition of one or more regularization forms  $R_i(u, v)$ . For instance, the traditional SCCA model introduces  $R_1(u) = \|u\|_1$  and  $R_2(v) = \|v\|_1$ . There are other regularizers, such as incorporating a group/network structure or other prior knowledge in brain imaging genomics data, to complete different tasks. In what follows, several classic and state-of-the-art studies using these regularized SCCA strategies will be introduced, which are widely utilized to identify complex multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging correlations. It can be divided into prior knowledge-induced SCCA models, and sample correlation-induced SCCA models according to their distinct regularization terms.

By introducing the sparsity into multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging association analysis, the model can automatically select relevant sparse SNP and QT feature variables from high-dimensional bivariate. However, a major problem of SCCA is that the model still does not fully consider the structural relationship between characteristic variables, that is, a lot of prior information is not used in the establishment of the model. For example, SNP loci in the same LD block may have some common characteristics, and the brain needs multiple brain regions to work together to complete a certain function. Therefore, in the research of multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging association, in order to make up for the shortcomings of traditional SCCA, many scholars have expanded and improved the SCCA model by using various priori information as regularization terms<sup>[85–89]</sup>. For example, a structure-aware SCCA (S2SCCA) model<sup>[89]</sup> was built via adding the following two group L1 norm terms into (11) i.e.,

$$R_1(u) = \sum_{g \in G_1} \|u_g\|_2 \tag{12}$$

$$R_2(v) = \sum_{g \in G_2} \|v_g\|_2 \tag{13}$$

where the LD blocks are employed for the construction of the SNP grouping structure  $G_1$  in (12). In (13), the ROIs are utilized for forming the voxelwise imaging QT grouping structure  $G_2$ . The goal is to identify multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging associations between APOE SNPs and the voxelwise QTs by using the prior knowledge as regularization terms. The empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify multi-SNP-multi-QT associations between the voxelwise QTs and APOE SNPs.

In addition, Yan et al.<sup>[85]</sup> presented a knowledge-guided SCCA (KG-SCCA), as shown in Fig. 7. This model uses group sparse regularization constraints to embed the LD block grouping prior information SNP loci into

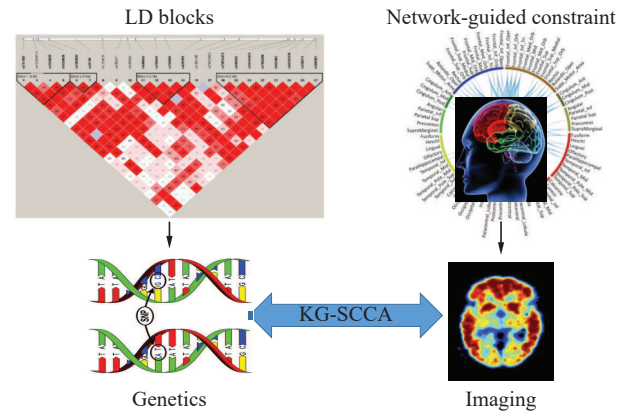


Fig. 7 Schematic of KG-SCCA, which aims to identify multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging associations between APOE SNPs and the voxelwise QTs<sup>[85]</sup>

(11) and the expression is as follows:

$$R_1(u) = \sum_{i=1}^g \sqrt{\sum_j \in G(i) u_j^2} \leq c_3 \tag{14}$$

where the feature variables in the L2 norm constraint group have the same weight contribution as much as possible, that is, SNP loci in the same LD block are more likely to be selected in association analysis. The L1 norm selects the few LD blocks with strong correlation by constraining the sparsity between groups. At the same time, the model also introduces the brain function network information as the prior knowledge of the feature similarity in brain region. In other words, when the connection weight in the brain network is high, the two brain region nodes have similar characteristics (gene expression is highly correlated), and the expression form of regularization constraints is as follows:

$$R_2(v) = \sum_{(i,j) \in E, i < j} \tau(w_{ij}) \times \|v_i - \text{sgn}(w_{ij})v_j\|_2 \leq c_4 \tag{15}$$

where  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  represent the feature weights of any two nodes on the brain network respectively.  $\text{sgn}(w_{ij})$  is the sgn of the correlation between  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . When  $\text{sgn}(w_{ij})$  is positive, there is a positive correlation between  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . When  $\text{sgn}(w_{ij})$  is negative, there is a negative correlation between  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ .  $\tau(w_{ij})$  is the connection intensity between  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . The higher intensity of  $\tau(w_{ij})$  indicates that the two brain region variables  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  tend to be selected simultaneously. An empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify multi-SNP-multi-QT associations between amyloid imaging QTs and APOE SNPs.

Furthermore, some work considers bi-multivariate multi-task prior knowledge-induced SCCA models. For example, in [90, 91], a multitask SCCA (MTSCCA) was presented for identifying bivariate associations between SNP data and multimodal imaging data as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{u,v} \sum_{j=1}^M u_j^T X^T Y_j v_j - \lambda_1 \|U\|_{2,1} - \lambda_2 \|U\|_{G_{2,1}} - \lambda_3 \|V\|_{2,1} \\ \text{s.t. } \|Xu_j\|_2^2 = \|Y_j v_j\|_2^2 = 1 \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

where  $X \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times p}$  is SNP data and  $Y_j \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times q}$  ( $j \in [1, M]$ ) is the imaging data of  $M$  modalities.  $U = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_M]$  and  $V = [v_1, v_2, \dots, v_M]$ . It is worth noting that the L21 norm regularization term is a “group-sparsity” regularizer, which forces only a small number of features to be selected from different modalities. The first regularization is a L21 norm to select SNP features. The second one is the group L21 norm that can select SNP features at the LD block level. The third regularization is a L21 norm, so as to select imaging features across all the modalities. A fast optimization algorithm has been implemented and applied to an ADNI sample to identify associations between over 150 000 SNPs from chromosome 19 and ROI-based QTs from three imaging modalities (VBM, FDG-PET, and Amyloid-PET).

In real biomedical studies, providing precise prior knowledge is a difficult task. Therefore, the above expanded forms of SCCA may be invalid once the biological priori knowledge is unavailable or incomplete. In general, the sample correlation was utilized rather than priori knowledges to define the graph or network constraint. Specifically, there are three types of regularizations used in (11): 1) L1 norm for flat sparsity, 2) group L1 norm for group sparsity, and 3) graph Laplacian-type norm to jointly select features connected in a graph. For example, in [92], a generic non-convex penalty based SCCA (GNC-SCCA) was designed as follows:

$$R(u) = \sum_{i=1}^p P_{\lambda, \gamma}(|u_i|) \quad (17)$$

where  $\lambda$  and  $\gamma$  represent nonnegative parameters, and  $P_{\lambda, \gamma}(|u_i|)$  denotes a non-convex function. Seven non-convex penalties were added into the L1-based SCCA for sake of reducing the estimation bias. An empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify multi-SNP-multi-QT associations between voxelwise QTs and 163 SNPs from AD genes.

Since the SCCA has the powerful ability to identify bi-multivariate relationships coupled with feature selection, it has become a popular tool in such field. The L0 norm is a sparsity-inducing tool, but it is a NP-hard problem. In practice, the L1 norm or its variants are usually introduced to replace the L0 norm for the sake of inducing sparsity. For instance, in [93], both truncated L1 norm penalized SCCA (TLP-SCCA) and truncated group lasso SCCA (TGL-SCCA) were presented, which respectively used truncated L1 norm and truncated group lasso below:

$$R(u) = \sum_{i=1}^p J_{\tau}(|u_i|), \quad \text{where } J_{\tau}(u_i) = \min\left(\frac{|u_i|}{\tau}, 1\right) \quad (18)$$

$$R(u) = \sum_{k=1}^K J_{\tau}(|G_k|), \quad \text{where } J_{\tau}(G_k) = \min\left(\frac{|G_k|}{\tau}, 1\right) \quad (19)$$

where  $\tau$  denotes a tuning parameter. Selecting an appropriate value of  $\tau$ ,  $R(u)$  can achieve a balance between the L0 norm and the L1 norm. It should be noted that,  $G_k$  denotes a subset of  $u$  at the  $k$ -th group ( $k \in [1, K]$ ), and  $u$  represents the concatenation of all  $G_k$ . An empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify multi-SNP-multi-QT associations between voxelwise QTs and 58 SNPs from AD-related genes, where QTs were grouped by ROI and SNPs were grouped by LD block.

In addition, inspired by GraphNet[94], Du et al.[86] proposed an absolute value-based GraphNet SCCA (AGN-SCCA), where an extended version of GraphNet regularization is added into the SCCA model. The forms of the AGN regularizations can be described into

$$R_1(u) = |u|^T L_1 |u| + \beta_1 \|u\|_1 \quad (20)$$

$$R_2(v) = |v|^T L_2 |v| + \beta_2 \|v\|_1 \quad (21)$$

where both  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  denote Laplacian matrices of the correlation matrices of  $X$  and  $Y$ . It should be noted that the data-driven correlation is here employed as a graph constraint, so that correlated features can be selected together. Additionally, by the added absolute value operation, both positively and negatively correlated features are allowed to be jointly selected. An empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify multi-SNP-multi-QT associations between ROI-based imaging QTs and 58 SNPs from AD-related genes.

Furthermore, the sample correlation-induced SCCA models are devoted to the association between the SNP data and the imaging data of one modality at single time point. Fortunately, these models have been extended to focus on the longitudinal imaging data. For example, in order to identify genetic associations with longitudinal phenotypic markers, Hao et al.[95] designed a temporally constrained group SCCA (TGSCCA) framework, which is modelled as

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{u,v} \sum_{t=1}^T u^T X^T Y_t v_t - \lambda_1 \|u\|_1 - \lambda_2 \|V\|_{2,1} - \\ \lambda_3 \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \|v_{t+1} - v_t\|_1 \\ \text{s.t. } \|Xu\|_2^2 = \|Y_t v_t\|_2^2 = 1 \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

where both  $u$  and  $v_t$  denote the weight vectors measuring

the contributions of the SNP loci and imaging phenotype ROIs at time-point  $t$ .  $v_{t+1}$  and  $v_t$  are weight vectors at adjacent time-points.  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$  and  $\lambda_3$  are three regularization parameters. As can be found, the fused Lasso regularization is capable of constraining the gaps between two successive canonical weight vectors from adjacent time-points to be small, so that weight vectors become smooth to select neighboring features together. An empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample to identify associations between 85 APOE SNPs and longitudinal VBM QTs from 116 ROIs at four time points.

### 3.2.2 Discussions

Other bimultivariate correlation models are now discussed below. Fang et al.<sup>[96]</sup> designed a greedy projected distance correlation (G-PDC) strategy for the examination of pairwise gene-region of interest (ROI) associations, in which each gene and ROI contain a number of SNPs and voxels, respectively. Distance correlation is used to measure statistical dependence between two random vectors (e.g., gene versus ROI), which can model nonlinear relationships between them. Projected distance correlation is prone to measure conditional dependence based on distance correlation<sup>[97]</sup>. A gene-ROI pair is provided to test their independence and control all the other SNPs and voxels. Hao et al.<sup>[98]</sup> proposed an analytical strategy with three-way SCCA (T-SCCA) for exploring the intrinsic associations among genetic markers, imaging QTs, and clinical scores of interest. Hu et al.<sup>[99]</sup> designed a distance CCA (DCCA) algorithm by integrating distance correlation into the SCCA model. This algorithm identified a set of original SNPs and a set of original imaging QTs with the highest distance correlation, so as to reduce burden for multiple testing correction. An empirical study was performed on the PNC data to examine the pairwise association between 264 ROIs (containing 27 384 voxels) and 736 genes (containing 21 487 SNPs). Wang et al.<sup>[100]</sup> proposed a multi-modality discriminant SCCA method (MD-SCCA), where valuable discriminant similarity information is incorporated into the SCCA model to improve learning results. To be specific, the discriminant similarity information between within-class subjects was firstly obtained via the sparse representation. Then, a discriminant SCCA algorithm (D-SCCA) was constructed by enforcing the discriminant similarity information. Finally, the MD-SCCA method was employed to fully investigate the relationships among different modalities of different subjects. To consider the underlying complex multi-subspace structure of the original data, Wang et al.<sup>[101]</sup> utilized the self-expressiveness reflecting the similarity structure of the data for reconstructing the original input before the association analysis. Concretely, the within-class similarity information was firstly applied to the construction of self-expressive networks by sparse representation. The fusion method was then used to iteratively fuse the self-expressive networks from multi-modality brain phenotypes into one network.

At last, a practical solution was provided for constructing and using the fused self-expressive network, so that the association between single modality phenotype and genotype could be mined by our method with L1 norm as well as the association between multi-modality phenotypes and genotype was explored by the form with the L21 norm. In addition, the deep learning technique has achieved great success in data-driven problems in biology and medicine. For instance, Wang et al.<sup>[102, 103]</sup> proposed a novel deep self-reconstruction sparse canonical correlation analysis (DS-SCCA) method for the identification of genetic associations with functional connectivity phenotypic markers. They focused on identifying the connectome, consisting of the brain region features and connectivity features, of functional brain networks derived from the fMRI data by realizing the relationships between genetic variants (i.e., the single nucleotide polymorphism, SNP) and brain networks (i.e., quantitative trait, QT). Furthermore, the main contribution of such work was an initial attempt to discover how genetic factors affect brain connectivity.

Table 2 summarizes bimultivariate correlation methods for the studies discussed earlier, which are devoted to identifying multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging associations from high-dimensional imaging genomic data. Similar to the regression models described earlier, the sparsity is also encouraged in these correlation models to reduce model complexity and the risk of overfitting, as well as identify relevant biomarkers. Most of these methods are based on regularized SCCA. In these SCCA models, the L1 or L21 norm is employed for feature selection, group L1 or L21 norm is used to select features at the group level, and the graph Laplacian is utilized for graph-guided learning. Note that the L21 norm is usually included in multimodal and longitudinal SCCA methods to select features across modalities or time points, and fused lasso or fused pairwise L21 norm is often used to smooth neighboring weights along the temporal dimension. Here, we adopt these studies using these strategies to identify complex multi-SNPCmulti-QT associations. We will cover: 1) fundamental SCCA models (i.e., S2SCCA, KG-SCCA); 2) enhanced SCCA models (i.e., an SCCA framework using a generic nonconvex penalty (GNC-SCCA), TLP-SCCA, TGL-SCCA, absolute value-based GraphNet SCCA (AGN-SCCA), FDR-corrected SCCA); 3) multimodal and longitudinal SCCA models (i.e., MTSCCA, TGSCCA); 4) other bimultivariate correlation models (i.e., T-SCCA, MD-SCCA, FSN-SCCA, FSN-GSCCA, DS-SCCA).

## 4 Outcome prediction

In imaging genomics, how to integrate brain imaging and genomics data for the prediction of outcomes of interest, such as impairment score, disease stage, and progression status, is also an interesting topic. At present,

Table 2 Example studies using bivariate correlation methods, which aim to identify multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging correlation from high-dimensional imaging genomic data

Related studies	Method feature	Dataset	Year	Publication
S2CCA <sup>[89]</sup>	Structure aware SCCA	ADNI	2014	<i>MICCAI</i>
KG-SCCA <sup>[85]</sup>	Knowledge-guided by LD block	ADNI	2014	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
GNC-SCCA <sup>[92]</sup>	Genetic non-convex penalty SCCA	ADNI	2017	<i>Scientific Reports</i>
TLP-SCCA, TGL-SCCA <sup>[93]</sup>	Truncated L1 norm penalized SCCA, truncated group lasso SCCA	ADNI	2017	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
AGN-SCCA <sup>[86]</sup>	Absolute value based GraphNet SCCA	ADNI	2016	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
FDR-corrected SCCA <sup>[104]</sup>	Incorporation of FDR concept into SCCA	PNC	2018	<i>Transactions on Medical Imaging</i>
MTSCCA <sup>[91]</sup>	Multi-task SCCA	ADNI	2021	<i>IEEE/ACM Transactions on Computational Biology and Bioinformatics</i>
TGSCCA <sup>[95]</sup>	Temporally constrained group SCCA	ADNI	2017	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
T-SCCA <sup>[98]</sup>	Three-way SCCA	ADNI	2017	<i>Scientific Reports</i>
MD-SCCA <sup>[100]</sup>	Multi-modality discriminant SCCA	ADNI	2021	<i>IEEE/ACM Transactions on Computational Biology and Bioinformatics</i>
FSN-SCCA, FSN-GSCCA <sup>[101]</sup>	Fusion self-expressive network based SCCA, fusion self-expressive network based group SCCA	ADNI	2021	<i>Transactions on Medical Imaging</i>
DS-SCCA <sup>[103]</sup>	Deep self-reconstruction SCCA	ADNI	2022	<i>Bioinformatics</i>

most methods usually apply conventional learning methods or develop new learning models to combine imaging and genomics data for outcome prediction<sup>[76, 105–109]</sup>. For instance, Dukart et al.<sup>[105]</sup> investigated the role of multimodal imaging (FDG-PET, MRI, and Amyloid-PET), neuropsychological, and genetic data as potential biomarkers to identify mild cognitive impairment (MCI) patients that will suffer from AD in the future. To be specific, naive Bayes classifiers were firstly constructed for distinguishing AD and CN participants by different combinations of the data modalities mentioned above. Then, the learned classifier was applied to MCI cohort to predict AD conversion status. Related experimental results indicated that 76% accuracy is obtained by FDG-PET data and 87% is acquired via multimodal imaging and genetic data. In <sup>[106]</sup>, a composite imaging genetic score was created to predict MCI conversion to AD. On the imaging hand, a nonlinear pattern recognition method<sup>[107]</sup> was firstly exploited for identifying AD-relevant volumetric regions. Then, an imaging score for each individual was obtained by applying a nonlinear support vector machine (SVM) to imaging measures from these regions. On the genomic hand, this technique utilized a linear SVM for classifying AD versus clinically normal (CN), so that a polygenic AD-related genetic score for each subject was exported. Finally, this technique created a composite imaging genetic score to be a weighted sum of the imaging score and the genetic score. Relevant results validated that the proposed composite score can effectively improve the prediction accuracy. Peng et al.<sup>[108]</sup> constructed a structured sparse kernel learning (SSKL) model used for AD prediction. In this model, each feature was expressed by a kernel and the modality information was ad-

opted to group kernels, so that variables could be selected at both the feature and group levels. Furthermore, an innovative structured sparsity regularization was added for ensuring feature sparsity within each modality but encouraging nonsparse solution modality. The empirical study provided promising results.

In addition, for sake of understanding the biological pathway from genetics to brain structure and function, and to cognitive, behavior, and diagnostic outcomes, many studies have explored the associations among genomics, imaging, and outcomes, and there are some methods for association analysis-based outcome prediction<sup>[101, 110–114]</sup> at present. For example, a discriminative SCCA model was constructed in <sup>[110]</sup> for the identification of disease-relevant imaging proteomics associations. Without SNP data, the protein expression data collected from CSF and plasma was analyzed, as well as the relationship to imaging QTs and multiclass diagnostic labels (CN, MCI, and AD) was studied. Furthermore, in <sup>[111]</sup>, a joint learning method was developed for diagnosis-relevant imaging genomics associations, which combines both SCCA and regression (SCCAR). Here, denote  $z$  as the outcome data, and such method can be described into

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{u,v} \frac{1}{2} \|z - Yv\|_2^2 - u^T X^T Yv + \lambda_1 R_1(u) + \lambda_2 R_2(v) \\ \text{s.t. } \|Xu\|_2^2 = \|Yv\|_2^2 = 1. \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

As can be known, the imaging component  $Yv$  was jointly learned in order to predict the outcome  $z$  and correlate with the genomic component. An empirical study was performed on an ADNI sample.

Furthermore, in <sup>[112]</sup>, a multi-task collaborative re-

gression (MT-CoReg) algorithm was presented, which can obtain outcome-relevant variables co-expressed in imaging and genomics modalities. This algorithm can be seen as a joint learning method via combining both SCCA and linear regression, which also uses the imaging component to predict outcome. Inspired by this work<sup>[112]</sup>, Wang et al.<sup>[101]</sup> built the proposed fusion self-expressive network SCCA (FSN-SCCA) association model and used the well-known multi-kernel (MK)-SVM<sup>[115]</sup> for the classification of significant memory concern (SMC), early mild cognitive impairment (EMCI), late mild cognitive impairment (LMCI), AD, and NC. Fig. 8 shows a visual framework of the joint proposed FSN-SCCA association model and the well-known MK-SVM for outcome prediction. In experimental results, this method respectively achieved 93.76% and 73.85% for AD versus NC and EMCI versus LMCI on the ADNI dataset, and the corresponding area under the curve (AUC) values were 0.95 and 0.7.

Table 3 summarizes the example studies of combining both imaging and genomics data for outcome prediction or association analysis-based outcome prediction. It should be noted that, most of the above-reviewed methods usually do not consider the imaging phenotypes asso-

ciated with the genotype in the clinical diagnosis. As can be well known that not all the variations in the brain are produced by genetic effects, and it is generally indeterminate which imaging phenotypes are meaningful for AD diagnosis and prediction. Relevant results presented that the association analysis-based outcome prediction approaches are helpful to guide disease interpretation and prediction.

### 5 Conclusions and future work

As an emerging frontier interdisciplinary field, imaging genomics involves a variety of scientific and research technologies such as neuroscience, imaging, genetics, medicine, biostatistics, data mining, and machine learning. Genomic and multimodal imaging data (including longitudinal brain imagings at different time points) also provide a rich data experimental platform for imaging genomics research, so that the pathogenic mechanism of the association between genes and brain structure or function can be presented through imaging endophenotypes with genetic properties. As a powerful tool of data-driven association analysis, machine learning technology

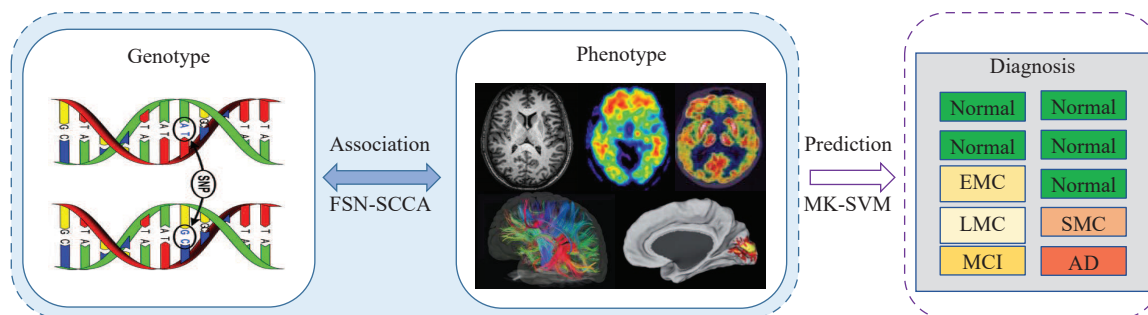


Fig. 8 Joint proposed FSN-SCCA association model and the MK-SVM to outcome prediction<sup>[101]</sup>

Table 3 Example studies of integrating imaging and genomics data for outcome prediction or association analysis-based outcome prediction

Category	Related studies	Method feature	Year	Publication
Integrate imaging and genomics data for outcome prediction	[105]	Bayes classifier	2015	<i>Journal of Alzheimer's Disease</i>
	[106]	Composite multivariate method	2012	<i>Journal of Alzheimer's Disease</i>
	SSKL <sup>[108]</sup>	AD prediction using multimodal imaging and SNP data	2016	<i>MICCAI</i>
	JCRMML <sup>[76]</sup>	Joint classification and regression framework for multimodal multitask learning	2012	<i>Bioinformatics</i>
	CaMCCo <sup>[109]</sup>	Cascaded multi-view canonical correlation	2017	<i>Scientific Reports</i>
Association analysis-based outcome prediction	DSCCA <sup>[110]</sup>	Discriminative SCCA	2017	<i>The 22nd Pacific Symposium on Biocomputing</i>
	SCCAR <sup>[111]</sup>	Combining SCCA and regression	2019	<i>ISBI</i>
	MT-CoReg <sup>[112]</sup>	Multi-task collaborative regression	2018	<i>Transactions on Medical Imaging</i>
	FSN-SCCA+MK-SVM <sup>[101]</sup>	Fusion self-expressive based network SCCA+MK-SVM	2021	<i>Transactions on Medical Imaging</i>
	[113]	Genome-wide mediation analysis	2017	<i>Human Brain Mapping</i>
[114]	Bayesian model	2016	<i>Transactions on Medical Imaging</i>	

can analyze the association between susceptible genes and brain structure or function, and better reveal the mechanism of brain cognitive behavior or related diseases by fully exploring and utilizing the internal structural information of biomarker data such as genes and imagings. This paper reviews the recent application of machine learning-based association analysis algorithms in the field of imaging genomics research. In this review, we used three databases including PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science to select the reviewed papers. The “brain imaging genomics (genetics)” was considered as the main keyword for the selection, and the dates queries were done in March 20, 2022. A large number of experiments and reports show that some of the association results detected by the model have also been verified in the biological and medical fields.

In this paper, the structured multivariate imaging genetic association analysis methods are all based on some prior knowledge, that is, associations are made on relatively related candidate gene sets or brain area sets. Although theoretically, these methods in this paper can be applied to whole-genome or whole-brain voxel analysis, the computational efficiency is low. For the efficiency of high-dimensional feature variable gene locus detection, in addition to improving the efficiency of the algorithm itself, the calculation of big data can also be completed by introducing a distributed parallel computing method<sup>[116]</sup>. Therefore, it is necessary to further develop and construct more efficient algorithm models or working frameworks to study the imaging genetic association of genome-wide and brain wide characteristic variables.

In fact, multivariate imaging genetic research based on the structured constraint method is capable of achieving good results, since a large amount of prior knowledge is embedded in the model of data analysis. For example, as one of representative prior knowledges, LD can characterize the simple structural relationship between SNPs. On this basis, researchers can supplement the prior information and expand the model. At present, some work has considered the use of prior knowledge of biological characteristics with more genetic functions in model establishment and learning training, including gene ontology (GO), function annotation, pathway analysis system (such as KEGG (Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genes), pathway database or OMIM (online mendelian inheritance in man) disease database)<sup>[117]</sup>. Therefore, how to design a model more suitable for practical application problems for data analysis according to these prior knowledge (such as the mechanism involved in neural regulation), that is, to realize the combination of hypothesis driven and data-driven methods<sup>[118]</sup>, in order to obtain better association results, is still a current research hotspot.

Although the association results of structured multivariate genetic-multivariate imaging correlation can ex-

plain genetic effects, there may be an interactive relationship between multiple non-allelic genes among the same trait, that is, the mechanism of epistasis is not very clear. At present, there has been some work to study the interaction between SNPs on imaging QTs<sup>[119]</sup>. These methods are mainly based on traversal pairwise search methods. For example, Hibar et al.<sup>[120]</sup> used an iterative sure independence screening (SIS) algorithm to achieve and detect SNP-SNP interactions significantly associated with a brain region trait. These ergodic searches carry a considerable computational time cost, while some efficient sparse models<sup>[50]</sup> are expected to provide efficient learning algorithms for epistasis studies of multiple interactions.

In the study of outcome prediction, most of the above research on the genetic-imaging association based on supervision information are only to study the mechanism of brain cognitive behavior or disease generation and provide basis for disease diagnosis and prediction<sup>[101, 110–113]</sup>. Therefore, how to construct a multi-task unified model of joint association, regression, and classification of genetics, brain imaging, clinical scores, and diagnosis information data<sup>[112, 121]</sup>, which can not only reveal the relationship between genetics and brain imaging, but also realize the diagnosis and prediction of diseases based on biomarkers. It will also become the development direction of future research in imaging genetics.

It is well-known that the deep learning has achieved great success in data-driven problems in biology and medicine. However, to the best of our knowledge, it has not been extensively applied to brain imaging genomics, which was partly caused by the limited sample size and high dimensionality of the existing imaging and genomics datasets. Recent studies have developed some deep learning based methods for outcome prediction by combining both brain imaging genomics data<sup>[122]</sup>. Since deep learning has been achieving great performance in medical image analysis<sup>[123]</sup> and multiomics research<sup>[124]</sup>, we believe that developing deep learning methods to solve pressing problems in brain imaging genomics is a promising research direction.

In this article, our work focuses on the main idea and modelling in genetic-imaging association studies based on machine learning. In our brief review, the goal of imaging genomics based on machine learning is to realize the association analysis study for understanding mechanisms and pathways. At present, as the problem of data leakage in several imaging studies<sup>[125]</sup>, another challenge in brain imaging genomics is how to handle data leakage leading to erroneous conclusions. Thus, data leakage in brain imaging genomics will be an important step to realize the association analysis study in order to identify some significant genetic loci and imaging phenotypic markers. Some sources of the data leakage, such as incorrect data split, late split, and the absence of an independ-

ent test set, etc., have been studied as described in several imaging studies<sup>[125]</sup>. However, systematic investigation of various data leakage factors is an underexplored topic and warrants further investigation.

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