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Leveraging the adolescent brain cognitive development study to improve behavioral prediction from neuroimaging in smaller replication samples

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Neuroimaging is a popular method to map brain structural and functional patterns to complex human traits. Recently published observations cast doubt upon these prospects, particularly for prediction of cognitive traits from structural and resting state functional magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). We leverage baseline data from thousands of children in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive DevelopmentSM Study to inform the replication sample size required with univariate and multivariate methods across different imaging modalities to detect reproducible brain-behavior associations. We demonstrate that by applying multivariate methods to high-dimensional brain imaging data, we can capture lower dimensional patterns of structural and functional brain architecture that correlate robustly with cognitive phenotypes and are reproducible with only 41 individuals in the replication sample for working memory-related functional MRI, and ~100 subjects for structural and resting state MRI. Even with 100 random re-samplings of 100 subjects in discovery, prediction can be adequately powered with 66 subjects in replication for multivariate prediction of cognition with working memory task functional MRI. These results point to an important role for neuroimaging in translational neurodevelopmental research and showcase how findings in large samples can inform reproducible brain-behavior associations in small sample sizes that are at the heart of many research programs and grants.

Key words: brain-behavior associations; multivariate modeling; neurocognition; structural MRI; task functional MRI.

Introduction

Understanding how the brain gives rise to behavior is a central goal and challenge of modern neuroscience. Non-invasive neuroimaging techniques have yielded valuable opportunities to link brain structure and function with cognitive and mental health phenotypes, which in turn could be useful to predict later behavioral outcomes (Kardan et al. 2022). However, recent reports have provided evidence that call into question the reproducibility of brain-behavior associations across various magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) modalities (Elliott et al. 2020; Kelly Jr and Hoptman 2022; Kennedy et al. 2022; Marek et al. 2022; Liu et al. 2023), even in large samples such as the Adolescent Brain Cognitive DevelopmentSM Study (ABCD Study[®]), which have yielded much smaller effect sizes than anticipated (Dick et al. 2021).

Recent reports have suggested that studies require thousands of individuals to be sufficiently powered to measure reproducible brain-behavior associations when applying commonly used univariate statistical methods (Marek et al. 2022; Liu et al. 2023). This has resulted in significant concerns across the brain imaging community, and beyond, about the value of MRI

in trying to understand human behavior, particularly for the preponderance of investigations that have been conducted in sample sizes well under one hundred, let alone thousands, of individuals. Dozens of research groups and media outlets have independently responded to this highly cited claim of thousands of individuals being required in brain-wide association studies, including many commentaries (“Cognitive neuroscience at the crossroads” 2022, “Revisiting doubt in neuroimaging research” 2022; Bandettini et al. 2022; Deyoung et al. 2022; Gratton et al. 2022; Kong et al. 2022; Rosenberg and Finn 2022; Tiego and Fornito 2022; Valk and Hettwer 2022; Chakravarty 2022; Uddin 2023), reports using synthetic data (Cecchetti and Handjaras 2022; Gell et al. 2023), neuroimaging/cognitive data from the UK Biobank and/or Human Connectome Project (Cecchetti and Handjaras 2022; Gell et al. 2023; Spisak et al. 2023), and psychopathology/genetic data from the ABCD Study (Tiego et al. 2023). Across this wave of responses, it has become increasingly clear that hundreds of individuals should be sufficient to measure reproducible brain-behavior associations, particularly with the right choice of multivariate prediction methods (Spisak et al. 2023) and a more intentional focus on specific behavioral phenotypes.

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It remains to be seen how such multivariate methods enhance power to predict behavior in a neurodevelopmental sample such as the ABCD Study. Further, many reports focusing on brain-behavior reproducibility issues have focused on resting state functional MRI (fMRI), necessitating a broader investigation of different imaging modalities, including structural and diffusion MRI, and task-evoked brain activation with fMRI. Marek, Tervo-Clemmens and colleagues (Marek et al. 2022) examined both multivariate methods and task fMRI, but did not highlight these results in the main conclusions of their paper, and used a multivariate technique that may not have been optimal in predicting cognition (Spisak et al. 2023). Task fMRI is of particular interest in the prediction of cognitive performance, given its success in mapping patterns of brain activity evoked by different tasks, identifying both distributed and specific neural responses to different processing demands. Our group and others have recently shown that task-evoked activation outperforms resting state functional connectivity measures when predicting cognition in the ABCD study (Chen et al. 2022; Omidvarnia et al. 2023; Zhao et al. 2023), and similar conclusions have been drawn in other samples of youth and adults (Rosenberg et al. 2016; Greene et al. 2018; Jiang et al. 2020; Finn and Bandettini 2021).

Here we compare the sample sizes required to detect reproducible brain-behavior associations across imaging modalities using univariate and multivariate methods. We demonstrate that by applying multivariate prediction methods that are sensitive to the complex familial structure of the ABCD study, we can capture significant patterns of associations between behavior and lower dimensional representations of structural/functional brain architecture, reducing the burden of multiple comparisons common to univariate studies. Multivariate analyses in turn yield larger effect sizes and more reproducible patterns of brain-behavior associations, negating the need for thousands of individuals, and instead showing sufficient power can be reached with well under one hundred individuals.

Materials and methods

Participants

Participants were drawn from the baseline visit of the ABCD Study, a longitudinal neuroimaging study that tracks brain and behavioral development of ~11,880 children starting at 9–10 years of age. The ABCD Study represents a demographically and ethnically diverse cohort of youth in the United States, and includes an embedded twin cohort and siblings. Informed consent was obtained from parents/caretakers and assent was obtained from the children. More detailed descriptions of recruitment and data collection within the ABCD sample can be found in (Garavan et al. 2018; Volkow et al. 2018). See Supplementary Tables 1 and 3 for sample details per imaging modality.

Imaging features predicting general cognition

We used six MRI-derived cortical features from three imaging modalities to predict general cognitive performance, defined by the Total Composite Score from the NIH Toolbox Cognition Battery, as described by Luciana et al. (2018). This cognitive measure allows for direct comparison with recent studies using the same outcome variable in ABCD (Sripada et al. 2020; Marek et al. 2022). A schematic of the imaging measures is shown in Supplementary Fig. 1, and more details on image processing are included in previous publications (Casey et al. 2018; Hagler Jr et al. 2019) and in Supplementary Methods. For measures derived from sMRI, we focused on cortical surface area (SA)

and cortical thickness (CT). For dMRI, we used measures derived from restriction spectrum imaging (RSI) (White et al. 2013; Palmer et al. 2022), including restricted normalized directional diffusion (RND) within superficial white matter, and restricted normalized isotropic diffusion (RNI) intracortically. As a supplementary analysis, we also included fractional anisotropy (FA) within superficial white matter from diffusion tensor modeling as a comparison to RND (see Supplementary Material).

For task fMRI, we chose to focus on the emotional n-back (ENb) task, which taps into working memory and emotional regulation (Barch et al. 2013; Cohen et al. 2016; Casey et al. 2018). Our recent work showed that task-based functional connectivity and parameter estimates from the ENb task are more predictive of general cognition than the other two tasks within the ABCD protocol, i.e. the stop signal task and monetary incentive delay task (Zhao et al. 2023). We applied standard processing of time series data, assuming a single fixed impulse response function across task conditions and brain regions. For each participant, we extracted the task model parameters derived from a general linear model applied to the time series data, which included the beta estimates of the task condition regressors (Hagler Jr et al. 2019) for the contrast between 2-back and 0-back trials, irrespective of the type of stimulus presented (i.e. emotional face or place). An average of the task model parameters across two runs was calculated.

Finally, we also included resting state (RS) fMRI correlation matrices, which estimate pair-wise correlations of brain activity at rest across 333 cortical regions from the Gordon parcellation (Gordon et al. 2016). We also explored prediction performance of the 13 functional network communities derived from the Gordon parcellation that are frequently analyzed in the neuroimaging literature (e.g. default mode, fronto-parietal, dorsal attention, etc.).

Univariate and multivariate subsampling scheme

A repeated hold-out validation scheme with 100 random subsamples was used to estimate the out-of-sample prediction performance of each imaging measure on general cognition. Each input imaging measure included 5124 features (reflecting the number of vertices), with the exception of the RS data, which comprised a 333×333 correlation matrix. For each of the 100 iterations, 90% of the sample was randomly assigned to the discovery sample and the remaining 10% to replication. Participants from the same family were kept within the same training and testing set during the cross validation.

Univariate associations

Within each training set defined through the subsampling scheme described above, the mass univariate correlation between each imaging measure and general cognition were estimated after regressing out age, sex, scanner ID, and software version, consistent with previous work (Sripada et al. 2020; Chaarani et al. 2021; Marek et al. 2022; Zhao et al. 2023). Within each iteration, the vertex with the absolute maximum correlation coefficient was identified and the outcome was defined as the correlation coefficient at that same vertex in the test set, and averaged across 100 iterations.

Multivariate prediction

Principal component analysis (PCA) and ridge regression using the Matlab function `ftrilinear` were utilized together to predict the behavioral outcome of the unseen, test-set participants. More details can be found in Supplementary Methods. Confounding effects of the same covariates used in univariate analyses (age,

sex, scanner ID and software version) were removed before out-of-sample prediction. PCA and ridge regression implemented in Matlab's *ftrilinear* was utilized to predict the behavioral outcome of the unseen, test-set participants. For each iteration, PCA was carried out first on the discovery sample, with the same transformation subsequently applied to the replication set. Normalization of imaging data before dimensionality reduction was also done within the cross-validation framework. The shrinkage parameter value, λ , was set to 1, consistent with previous work (Spisak et al. 2023). The k value, representing the fraction of principal components used in prediction, was empirically determined as follows. First, 15 different values of k spanning 0 to 1 (i.e. 0.001, 0.0016, 0.0027, 0.0044, 0.0072, 0.012, 0.019, 0.032, 0.052, 0.085, 0.14, 0.23, 0.37, 0.61, 1.00) were tested in a first round of 100 random subsamples, split into 90% and 10% discovery and replication datasets, respectively. The k value that yielded the optimal prediction performance was then subsequently used in a second iteration of 100 random subsamples, from which prediction performance was evaluated. The empirically determined k value per imaging modality and behavioral measure is listed in [Supplementary Table 3](#).

The correlation between the predicted and the observed behavioral score was used as the metric for out-of-sample behavioral prediction performance of each imaging measure. The standard deviation of the correlation estimates took into consideration the expected 10% overlap in replication datasets given the 90/10 split utilized in our cross-validation scheme. Specifically, all standard deviation estimates were scaled up by a factor of ~ 1.05 , based on the finite population correction $1/\sqrt{(1-p)}$ (where p is the expected proportion overlap between replication samples of 0.1) (Bondy and Zlot 1976). To investigate the performance of smaller discovery sample sizes, we also applied the same subsampling scheme over nine different discovery sample sizes spanning from 10 to 5,000 participants in log units ($n = 10, 22, 47, 103, 224, 486, 1,057, 2,299, 5,000$) for prediction of cognition from imaging features, while fixing the replication sample size to be $n = 1,000$ across discovery sample sizes. For standard deviation estimates in this case, p reflected $1,000/n_{\text{modality}}$. Note, for prediction with the fMRI-derived features, there were not enough participants left over at a discovery sample size of $n = 5,000$ to reach a replication sample of $n = 1,000$. Thus, we only estimated out-of-sample performance up to a discovery sample size of $n = 2,299$ for these features.

Generation of power curves

Power curves were generated in Matlab, where the replication sample size needed to achieve a desired level of power was defined as follows (Hulley et al. 2013) and consistent with recent papers (Marek et al. 2022; Spisak et al. 2023):

$$N = [(Z_{\alpha} + Z_{\beta}/C)^2 + 3]$$

where Z_{α} represents the standard normal score for a given two-tailed alpha level (set to 0.05 in our work); Z_{β} represents the standard normal score for a given beta-value (e.g. 0.2 for 80% power) and $C = \arctan(r)$, where r represents the absolute maximum correlation for univariate analyses, taken as the mean correlation across 100 iterations of out-of-sample prediction for multivariate analyses.

Prediction performance for other phenotypes

Beyond general cognitive ability, we also investigated the prediction of 7 other phenotypes ([Supplementary Table 2](#); [Supplementary Fig. 5](#)), including 1 in-scanner behavioral task (accuracy on 2-back trials within the ENb task), 3 out-of-scanner

cognitive measures (crystallized [comprised of Picture Vocabulary and Oral Reading tasks] and fluid composite [comprised of Pattern Comparison Processing Speed, List Sorting Working Memory, Picture Sequence Memory, Flanker, and Dimensional Change Card Sort tasks] scores from the NIH Toolbox, and Matrix Reasoning from the Wechsler Intelligence Test for Children-V (Wechsler 2014) and 3 measures of psychopathology (internalizing and externalizing symptoms from the Child Behavior Checklist, as well as a p factor calculated from the Child Behavior Checklist subscale scores, as presented in Clark et al. (2021)).

Specificity of task fMRI contrast for prediction

To determine whether task functional activation patterns predicting cognition are strengthened when using a task-based contrast relevant for the predictive variable (e.g. 2- vs 0-back trials as presented in our main analyses), or can be generalized to any task-based contrast, we assessed predictive performance of three additional contrasts from the ENb task on general cognition. This included two non-working memory related contrasts (e.g. faces vs places; emotional vs. neutral faces), and one contrast with a lower working memory load (e.g. 0-back trials only).

Results

Participants

Final sample sizes per modality were: structural MRI (sMRI), $n = 11,174$ (47.96% female), mean age in months (std) = 119.04 (7.50); diffusion MRI (dMRI), $n = 10,200$ (48.44% female), mean age in months (std) = 119.11 (7.50); task fMRI, $n = 5673$ (49.29% female), mean age in months (std) = 119.80 (7.96); and RS fMRI, $n = 5321$ (50.4% female), mean age in months (std) = 119.90 (7.53). Included participants and sample sizes ([Supplementary Tables 1 and 3](#)) varied by imaging modality based on recommended inclusion flags (e.g. includes quality control criteria across modalities, and behavioral performance cut-offs for task fMRI; see [Supplementary Table 4](#)).

Univariate associations and absolute maximum correlations between imaging features and general cognition

Resultant cortical maps depicting brain-behavior univariate correlations are in [Fig. 1A](#) and resting state fMRI univariate correlations in [Fig. 1B](#). Generally, correlations between brain structure and general cognition were weak (max $|r| = 0.151, 0.150, 0.122$ for CT, RND, and RNI, respectively), with slightly larger effect sizes for SA globally with total composite scores (SA max $|r| = 0.215$). RS fMRI yielded similar univariate associations as the structural measures (RS max $|r| = 0.16$). The strongest associations between the chosen imaging measures and general cognition emerged for ENb 2- vs. 0-back task parameter estimates (ENb max $|r| = 0.287$). Notable positive associations emerged with dorsolateral and medial prefrontal cortices and precuneus bilaterally predicting total composite scores.

Multivariate associations

Results from multivariate prediction, using PCA and ridge regression in a repeated hold-out validation scheme with 100 random subsamples, are shown in [Fig. 2A](#). When exploring the prediction performance of the functional correlations between 13 predefined functional networks (Gordon et al. 2016) (e.g. default mode, dorsal attention, fronto-parietal, etc.), we found very poor performance across both multivariate ($r = 0.008 + 0.043$) and univariate ($r = -0.005 + 0.040$) methods, even with opposite signs in

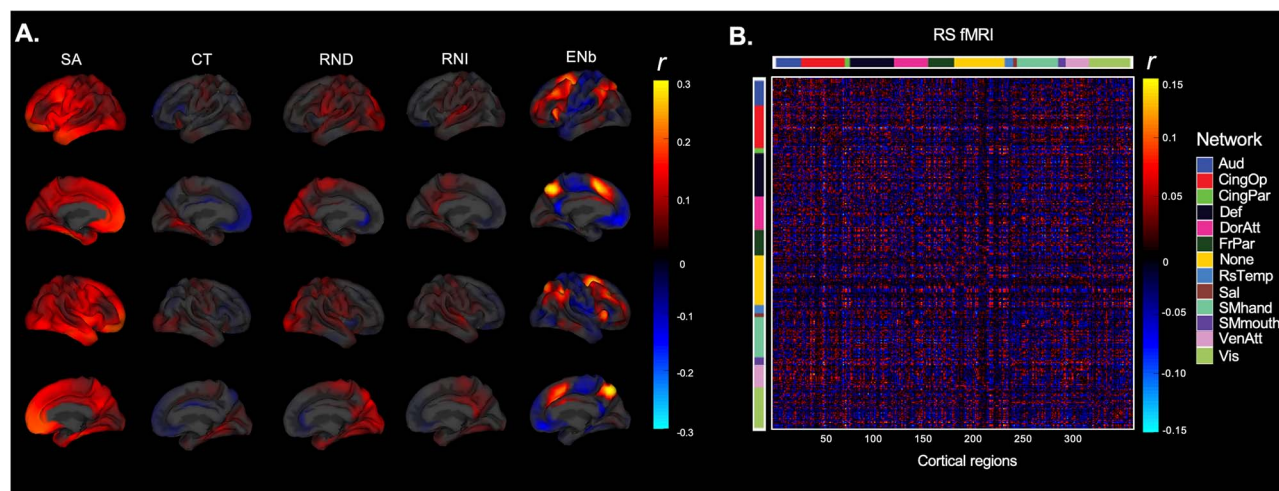


Fig. 1. Univariate associations, estimated with Pearson r correlations, between general cognition and: A. Five vertex-wise cortical features; and B. Resting state correlation data across 333 cortical regions from the Gordon parcellation. In panel B, regions are clustered by resting-state network for visualization purposes only. Abbreviations: SA, surface area; CT, cortical thickness; RND, restricted directional diffusion within superficial white matter; RNI, restricted isotropic diffusion intracortically; ENb, emotional N-back task fMRI, reflecting the 2- vs. 0-back contrast. RS, resting state fMRI. Aud, Auditory; CingOp, Cingulo-Opercular; CingPar, Cingulo-parietal; Def, Default mode; DorAtt, Dorsal attention; FrPar, fronto-parietal; RsTemp, Retrosplenial temporal; Sal, Salience; SMhand, Sensorimotor hand; SMmouth, Sensorimotor mouth; VenAtt, ventral attention; Vis, Visual.

the correlation between observed and predicted values of general cognition. We thus focused on the functional correlations between the full Gordon parcellation with 333 regions for all analyses using resting-state fMRI as an imaging predictor in this work.

Multivariate prediction was comparable across sMRI features (SA: $r = 0.276 + 0.027$ [adjusted standard deviation of the predicted correlation across folds, taking into consideration 10% overlap in test datasets]; CT: $r = 0.284 + 0.031$) and resting state (RS: $r = 0.286 + 0.142$), but still remained weak for dMRI features (RND in superficial white matter: $r = 0.163 + 0.039$; RNI intracortically: $r = 0.093 + 0.042$). Task fMRI estimates yielded the best prediction performance, with $r = 0.425 + 0.036$.

For comparison, univariate correlation values were defined as the mean maximum absolute correlation value across iterations with the following outcomes (also shown in Fig. 2B): SA: $r = 0.205 + 0.03$; CT: $r = 0.139 + 0.033$; RND in superficial white matter: $r = 0.127 + 0.034$; RNI intracortically: $r = 0.083 + 0.036$; ENb: $r = 0.242 + 0.04$; RS: $r = 0.116 + 0.045$). As expected, multivariate analyses yielded stronger effects than univariate analyses, particularly for sMRI and fMRI measures. Only a small boost in power was observed for dMRI measures when using multivariate as compared with univariate methods, with particularly little improvement for intracortical restricted diffusion. Results were comparable for RND and FA in superficial white matter (Supplementary Fig. 2), with a slightly larger boost with multivariate methods for RND (~22% increase in prediction from univariate to multivariate) compared to FA (15% increase).

Power calculations

Power curves for multivariate and univariate outcomes are shown in Fig. 3A and B, respectively. To achieve 80% power to detect the measured brain-behavior associations with multivariate analyses, approximately 100 subjects in the replication sample are required across sMRI features and RS. Samples of 293 and 905 subjects are required for RND and RNI from dMRI, respectively. For ENb fMRI features, only 41 subjects are required. This can be compared to the higher number of subjects required with univariate associations; specifically, 185 subjects for surface area features, 404 for cortical thickness, over 480 for dMRI features, 132 for ENb fMRI

features, and 581 for RS. These out-of-sample replication sample sizes based on prediction performance follow classic power law principles as previously reported (Spisak et al. 2023). Plots of sign error rates by sample size are included in Supplementary Fig. 3.

Prediction performance as a function of discovery sample size

The above analyses define the replication sample size required to achieve a desired level of power, given the thousands of individuals used in the discovery sample. Our final set of analyses explored the out-of-sample prediction performance achieved over nine different discovery sample sizes spanning from 10 to 5,000 participants in log units ($n = 10, 22, 47, 103, 224, 486, 1,057, 2,299, 5,000$) for prediction of cognition from imaging features (Fig. 4), with the same prediction scheme as described above, and selecting a random subsample of $n = 1,000$ participants from the remaining sample to be used as the replication set. Consistent with the results presented above, a clear advantage for multivariate as compared to univariate methods was observed for sMRI (Fig. 4A) and task fMRI features (Fig. 4E). For example, with ~100 subjects in the discovery sample, a prediction performance of $r = 0.34$ was obtained for multivariate methods using ENb fMRI features, corresponding to approximately 66 subjects in the replication sample required to achieve 80% power. This can be compared with $r = 0.14$ with univariate methods (~398 subjects required) given 100 subjects in the discovery sample.

Prediction performance for other phenotypes

The out-of-sample prediction performance for seven other measures (1 in-scanner behavioral measure of 2-back trial accuracy, 3 cognitive and 3 measures related to psychopathology; Supplementary Table 2) beyond the total composite score from the NIH toolbox are shown in Supplementary Fig. 4, with corresponding replication sample size estimates to detect these effects with 80% power in Supplementary Fig. 5. In general, imaging measures (especially fMRI and structural MRI) were more predictive of cognitive variables than psychopathology, although psychopathology measures still benefit from multivariate methods, especially for prediction from ENb fMRI and surface area for a

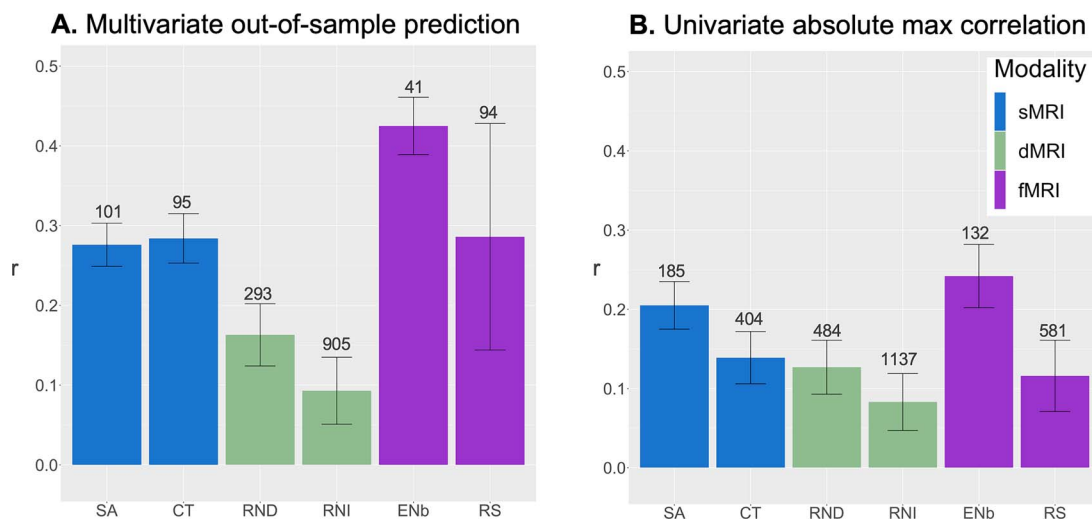


Fig. 2. Comparison of out-of-sample prediction performance from multivariate analyses (panel A) per imaging measure/modality, vs. maximum absolute correlations derived from univariate analyses (panel B). Error bars reflect standard deviation, adjusted for the 10% sample overlap in test datasets. Numbers above each bar reflect the sample size required to achieve 80% power to detect effects in a replication sample, given the uncovered r values from the ABCD discovery sample. Abbreviations: sMRI, structural MRI; dMRI, diffusion MRI; fMRI, functional MRI; SA, surface area; CT, cortical thickness; RND, restricted directional diffusion within superficial white matter; RNI, restricted isotropic diffusion intracortically; ENb, emotional N-back task fMRI, reflecting the 2- vs. 0-back contrast; RS, resting state fMRI.

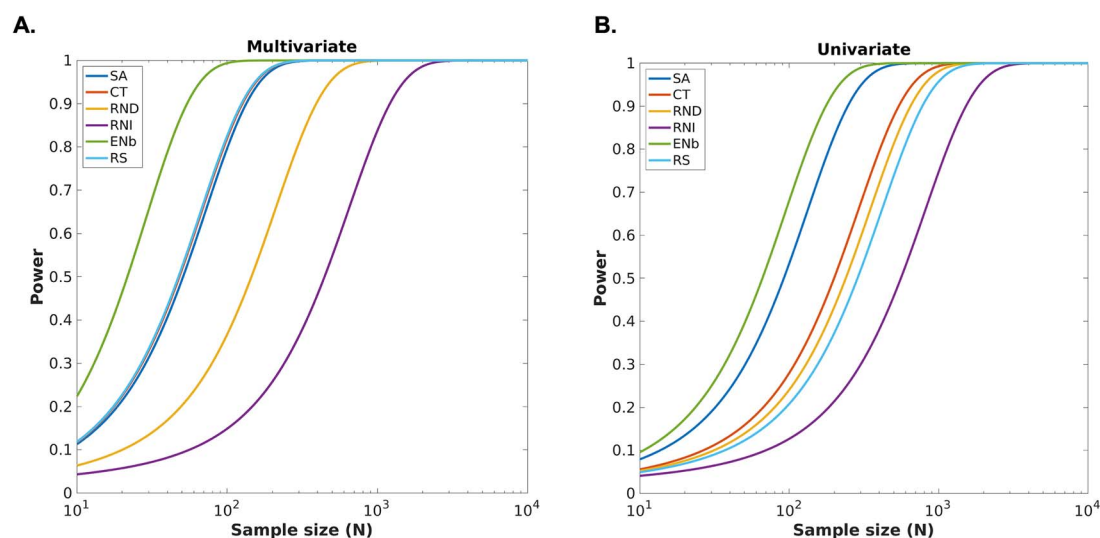


Fig. 3. Power curves displaying replication sample sizes required (x-axis: Log-scale N) to achieve desired level of power (y-axis) based on performance of each imaging measure in predicting general cognition in replication sample using (A) multivariate vs (B) univariate methods. Abbreviations: SA, surface area; CT, cortical thickness; RND, restricted directional diffusion within superficial white matter; RNI, restricted isotropic diffusion intracortically; ENb, emotional N-back task fMRI, reflecting the 2- vs. 0-back contrast; RS, resting state fMRI.

general “ p ” factor of psychopathology. The highest performance was achieved with ENb fMRI predicting 2-back trial accuracy with an $r = 0.503$, which would require only 29 subjects in a replication sample to detect with 80% power. This finding is consistent with our previous report of in-scanner task-relevant behavior having notably strong associations with fMRI, as compared to an out-of-scanner cognitive task (Zhao et al. 2023).

Specificity of task fMRI contrast for prediction

Finally, we show that the predictive power of task functional MRI is linked to the relevance of the chosen ENb contrast for the behavioral outcome (Supplementary Fig. 6). Specifically, we find that multivariate prediction of general cognition is much lower across the two non-working memory related contrasts (faces vs places: $r = 0.126 + 0.051$; emotional vs neutral faces $r = 0.091 + 0.041$)

and for using 0-back trials only ($r = 0.248 + 0.054$), compared to using the 2- vs 0-back trial contrast as presented throughout the manuscript ($r = 0.425 + 0.036$).

Discussion

Our work demonstrates that by leveraging large datasets such as ABCD, reproducible brain-behavior associations can be measured with multivariate methods applied to structural and functional MRI in smaller replication samples (e.g. approximately 100 subjects) typical of many existing publications, grants, and databases. We find that a working-memory functional MRI task is particularly well-powered to predict general cognition in the baseline ABCD sample, with only ~ 41 subjects required to achieve 80% power, and this is further boosted to just 29 subjects when

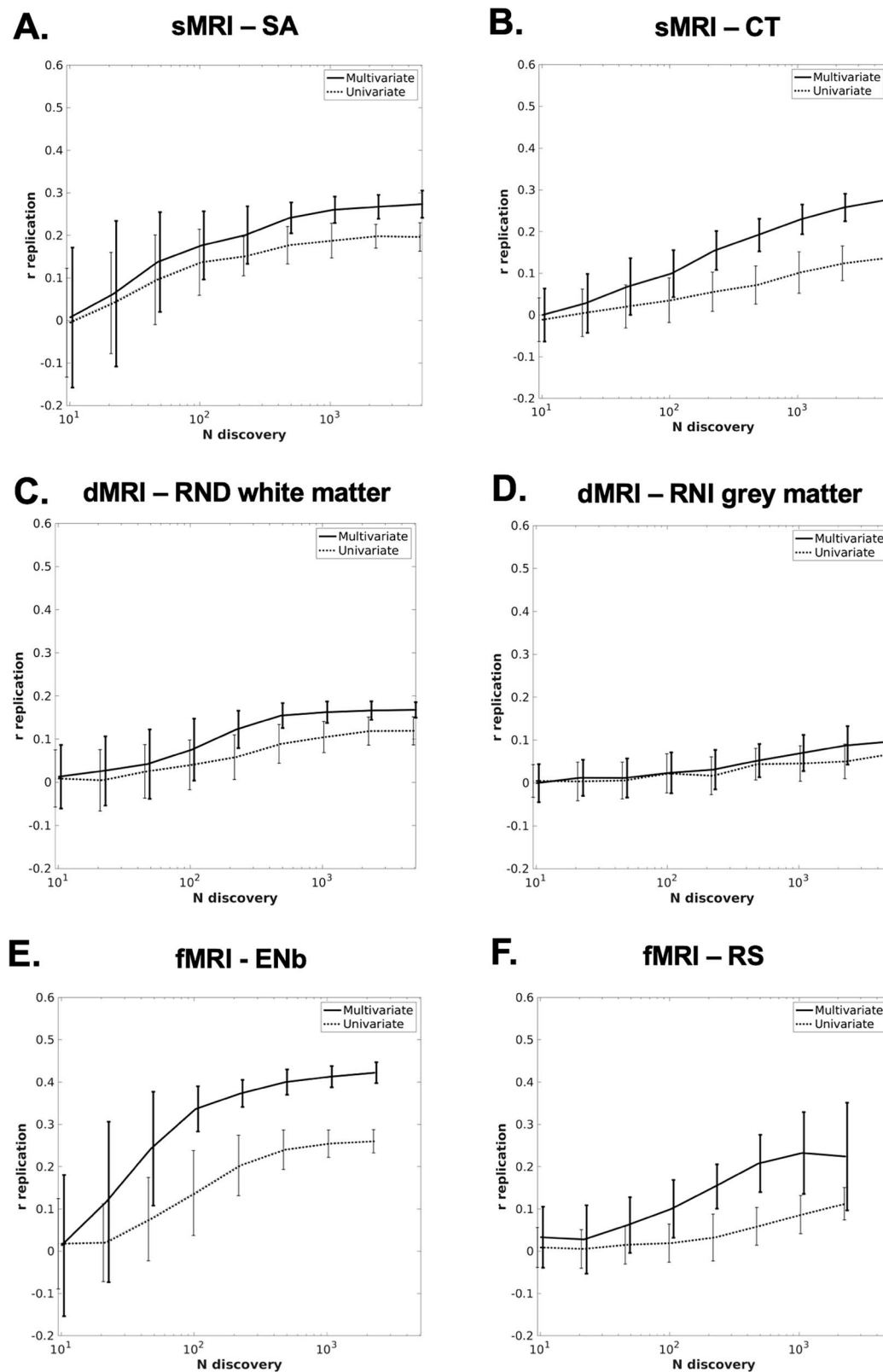


Fig. 4. Replication curves showing out-of-sample prediction performance (defined by r on the y-axis) for each of the six imaging measures predicting general cognition, as a function of sample size in the discovery sample (represented on the x-axis in log-scale units). Replication sample size was fixed to be $n = 1,000$ across discovery sample sizes. For prediction with the fMRI-derived features, there were not enough participants left over at a discovery sample size of $n = 5,000$ to reach a replication sample of $n = 1,000$. Thus we only estimated out-of-sample performance up to a discovery sample size of $n = 2,299$ for these features. Multivariate metrics are compared to univariate r -values, reflecting the absolute maximum correlation value. Error bars reflect standard deviation, adjusted for sample overlap in the replication datasets, and are jittered for better visualization. Abbreviations: sMRI. Structural MRI; dMRI. Diffusion MRI; fMRI. Functional MRI; SA. Surface area; CT. Cortical thickness; RND. restricted directional diffusion within superficial white matter; RNI. Restricted isotropic diffusion intracortically; ENb. Emotional N-back task fMRI, reflecting the 2- vs. 0-back contrast; RS. Resting state fMRI.

predicting a measure of performance on the fMRI task itself. Finally, we show that with 100 random samplings of just 100 subjects in the discovery sample, prediction can be adequately powered with just 66 subjects in the replication sample when using multivariate methods to predict cognition from working memory task-fMRI data. This work paints a much more optimistic landscape of opportunities offered by non-invasive MRI techniques across different imaging modalities with even several dozen subjects, particularly with targeted experimental designs and improved statistical analysis.

The boost in power afforded by multivariate as compared to univariate methods in measuring brain-behavior associations is well-documented (Sripada et al. 2020; Palmer et al. 2021; Zhao et al. 2021; Marek et al. 2022; Spisak et al. 2023). Associations between cognitive performance and neuroimaging phenotypes are particularly amenable to multivariate methods, given the distributed and sparse nature of these effects across the brain (Palmer et al. 2021; Zhao et al. 2021). Functional MRI analysis has long capitalized on observed strong patterns of spatial and temporal correlations across the brain (Derado et al. 2010). Structural imaging-derived phenotypes also have a strong covariance structure between regions (Lerch et al. 2006), likely due to gradients of core neurodevelopmental genetic factors shaping the cortex early in life (Rakic 1988, 2009; van der Meer et al. 2020; Makowski et al. 2022). In line with our previous work (Palmer et al. 2021), multivariate methods capturing distributed brain structural patterns explained a larger amount of variance in cognition compared to univariate mapping. We observed weak univariate effect sizes between structural/diffusion imaging measures and cognitive measures, with the lowest effects for intracortical restricted diffusion. However, and importantly, these small effects with sMRI and RS fMRI received substantial boosts with multivariate modeling. Our results emphasize the importance of taking into consideration structural and functional brain patterns as a whole in brain-behavior analyses, rather than analyzing any single vertex or region-of-interest in isolation. Although results were weaker overall with measures of psychopathology (e.g. internalizing and externalizing symptoms, p factor of psychopathology), these measures still benefited from a boost in prediction, particularly when predicted by fMRI and surface area, using multivariate methods. Generally, we also observed that surface area and task fMRI performed quite well for other cognitive measures, once again suggesting that replication sample sizes still only require on the order of hundreds, not thousands, of individuals for these imaging measures.

The notably high prediction performance of the ENb task on general cognition and accuracy on 2-back trials showcases the power of using a task-evoked functional MRI study design in predicting task-relevant behavior. Our group has previously shown that accuracy on 2-back trials was highly correlated with total composite cognition (Zhao et al. 2023), while performance on a motor inhibitory task exhibited little or no correlation with either cognitive measure. This behavioral correlation pattern was consistent with the greater prediction performance of the ENb task on total composite cognition, and the weak associations found with the motor inhibitory task. We also demonstrate that the choice of task fMRI contrast is an important variable in a predictive framework, whereby we only saw a boost in predictive performance with the 2- vs 0-back contrast, and not for other contrasts that do not engage working memory-related processes to the same extent. Although structural MRI and resting-state fMRI can be useful in mapping brain-behavior associations, our results do emphasize the advantage of using an active

experimental functional brain imaging paradigm to improve predictive performance of behavior.

Similar to the structural MRI measures, we find that resting state fMRI predictors also receive a generous boost from multivariate prediction methods ($r=0.286$ and 94 subjects to detect with 80% power for general cognition) compared to univariate ($r=0.116$ and 584 subjects needed). Beyond general cognition, the resting state correlation matrix predicted other cognitive and psychopathology measures in a manner similar to cortical thickness predictors. However, our ENb task fMRI predictors still outperformed resting state fMRI across all behavioral outcomes. There was also a large degree of variability in resting state fMRI prediction across iterations, as can be seen by the larger adjusted standard deviation estimates, particularly for multivariate prediction. We also further emphasize in this work, concordant with recent work from our group (Zhao et al. 2023), that task fMRI outperforms resting state fMRI in predicting task-relevant behavior (i.e. accuracy on 2-back trials). Altogether, this suggests that low-dimensional patterns of resting-state correlations across the brain are more useful than any single pair-wise correlation on its own in predicting behavior. However, the absence of an actively engaging task with resting state fMRI may be contributing to much more heterogeneous performance metrics across different subsamples, compared with the more stable estimates derived from task fMRI. Finally, we found very poor performance of functional correlations between pre-defined networks that are frequently incorporated into neuroimaging analyses, calling into question the validity and biological interpretation of these networks when defined in independent samples.

We did not observe large boosts in effect sizes with diffusion MRI measures when comparing multivariate to univariate associations. RND within superficial white matter showed a slight boost, with 290 participants required in the replication sample to achieve 80% power in predicting cognition with multivariate methods, compared with 508 with univariate methods at the same level of power. Notably, RND, derived from restriction spectrum imaging modeling, benefited more from multivariate methods for prediction of general cognition compared to fractional anisotropy of superficial white matter. The slight improvement in performance of RND compared to FA is consistent with several reports that RSI measures, derived from multi-shell diffusion imaging acquisitions, may be more sensitive in capturing microstructural properties especially in the context of neurodevelopment (Palmer et al. 2022), and neurological and psychiatric disorders (Carper et al. 2016; Loi et al. 2016; Reas et al. 2018). For restricted isotropic diffusion intracortically, both methods still required over 1000 individuals. Although the current manuscript focused on pericortical associations (i.e. in and around the cortex), it cannot be ruled out that diffusion measures of other brain regions, that may be more reliably measured with MRI (e.g. deeper white matter tracts, subcortical structures), would still benefit from multivariate analyses. Future work extending multivariate analyses to voxel-wise prediction of cognitive and other behavioral phenotypes hypothesized to be more strongly associated with microstructure would be fruitful in testing this hypothesis.

The conclusion reaching many headlines that thousands of individuals are required to measure brain-behavior associations with structural and functional MRI (Marek et al. 2022) is based on the assumption that researchers are working within a univariate framework and sampling across a broad array of outcomes. This conclusion was also based largely on the poor performance of resting-state functional connectivity to predict cognition and other behaviors, a method that does not orient participants'

attention to any particular task or stimulus, and in turn, may not be the best candidate for predicting measures of cognition (Rosenberg and Finn 2022; Zhao et al. 2023). This “brain-wide association study” approach of sampling across a large array of behavioral outcomes with mass univariate analyses bears some resemblance to methods used in genome-wide association studies (GWAS). However, the application of multivariate methods helps ease the burden of multiple comparison corrections that mass univariate methods typically require. Instead, our findings highlight a different use case of a GWAS-like framework, where we can leverage a larger discovery sample, such as the one afforded by the ABCD Study, to define multivariate brain patterns associated with behavioral measures of interest, and in turn, inform findings in smaller samples. In this vein, our approach parallels that of the application of consortia-led GWAS to the derivation of polygenic risk scores in independent datasets, where large samples can help us obtain more precise predictive weights for out-of-sample prediction.

However, large “ABCD-like” samples are not always necessary if working with strong brain-behavior relationships to begin with. Here we highlight analyses testing out-of-sample prediction performance given different discovery sample sizes, showing that even with 100 random samplings of 50 subjects in the discovery sample, only ~100 subjects are required in replication to predict general cognition from task fMRI data using multivariate methods. It is important to note, however, that there is still large variability in prediction estimates across 100 iterations at smaller discovery samples. Additionally, integration of regularization methods in our multivariate prediction framework may have contributed to the well-powered results even in smaller discovery samples by reducing the chances of overfitting, leading to a more optimal model. This further emphasizes the fact that with the correct methodological choices, thousands of individuals are not always required in either discovery or replication samples in pursuit of meaningful and reproducible brain-behavior associations. This is particularly evident when predicting relevant in-scanner behavior (i.e. 2-back accuracy) from task activation during the ENb task, where only 29 replication subjects were required to assess this relationship with 80% power. Larger samples, however, are required for other weaker brain-behavior associations, for instance with internalizing and externalizing measures of psychopathology in ABCD.

We have previously shown in our own work that a notable portion of the variance attributed to imaging measures in predicting cognition is shared with sociodemographic variables (Zhao et al. 2023), reflecting the complex interplay between socioeconomic resources and other environmental factors, brain development and behavior. Others have also shown the importance of socioeconomic resources on brain-behavior relationships in models integrating both structural (Thomas and Coecke 2023; Farah 2017; Brito and Noble 2014; Raizada and Kishiyama 2010) and functional (Tomalski et al. 2013; Tomasi and Volkow 2023; Demir et al. 2015) imaging modalities. Sociodemographic factors capture a complex array of variables that differentially and jointly influence brain structure. For instance, in a large developmental sample of youth between the ages of 3 and 20 years, parental education and family income were non-linearly associated with cortical surface area, with most pronounced effects at lower income levels and in heteromodal brain regions, such as frontal and temporal areas important for language and memory (Noble et al. 2015). Socioeconomic resources are also hypothesized to modulate neurodevelopmental trajectories (Thomas and Coecke 2023), where evidence has suggested altered development of gray

matter (Hanson et al. 2013), cortical thickness (Piccolo et al. 2016) and myelin-based markers (Ziegler et al. 2020) with age as a function of socioeconomic factors. These neuroanatomical and functional relationships with variables such as poverty levels, household income, and parental education may be an integrated result of the impact of socioeconomic resources on cognition in youth, reflected through both neural and behavioral mechanisms (Ursache and Noble 2016). We acknowledge that socioeconomic status is a highly complex, multi-dimensional construct that would require the inclusion of a larger array of environmental, community-based and developmental measurements to better understand its influence on cognition, which could form the basis for future work using the ABCD Study dataset.

The included age range of participants in this work (ages 9–11 years) marks a time of dynamic development with respect to both neurocognition and brain maturation, captured in part by our MRI-based cortical measures. Alterations in synaptic density within the cortical mantle are intricately linked with cognitive development (Rakic et al. 1994; Petanjek et al. 2023; Petanjek et al. 2011). Sex differences in cortical trajectories with age have also been shown putatively linked to differences in synaptic and dendritic architecture (Duerden et al. 2019). Although we only focused on a single timepoint and pooled across the sexes to remain consistent with other recent work in this domain, it will be important to integrate incoming longitudinal data from the ABCD Study, to elucidate if any imaging modalities or brain patterns may have more predictive power of cognition in a neurodevelopmental context. Sex-dependent maturational patterns may also yield important clues for cognitive performance and neuropsychiatric measures that show sex differentiation.

We recognize that although effects were strongest with task fMRI compared to other imaging modalities, the included sample of 5,673 individuals may not generalize to the full sociodemographic spread of the ABCD baseline sample. Similarly, our sample with recommended resting state fMRI data for inclusion ($n=5,321$) represented the smallest sample of all of the imaging modalities. We aimed to stay as consistent as possible with other recent work testing the reproducibility and power of brain-behavior associations with neuroimaging, and restricted our covariates to age, sex, and scanner type. However, future investigations would benefit from a deeper understanding of the impact of sociodemographic and environmental factors in behavioral prediction paradigms, as discussed above. The brain-behavior associations reported here may not generalize to older adolescents or adults, given the age range of the included ABCD baseline sample. Future work is encouraged to integrate longitudinal data from ABCD to boost effect sizes of brain-behavior associations (Kang et al. 2023), as well as integrate independent datasets from different developmental stages for broader generalization and external validation. Given the relatively weaker predictive power of resting-state fMRI compared to task fMRI for cognition shown both in this work and others (Zhao et al. 2021; Marek et al. 2022), there has been increased dialogue surrounding a potential paradigm shift from resting state to task-based functional MRI measures (Greene et al. 2018). Mental health-related phenotypes are of particular interest in adolescent samples, but show weaker effects with brain structure and function in ABCD Study data compared to general cognition. Future directions would benefit from a focus on modeling of behavioral phenotypes to improve precision behavioral phenotyping (Tiego et al. 2023). It will also be important to integrate independent datasets for external validation. Finally, recommendations have been made to steer away from single modeling approaches and understand how various

models (e.g. mixture modeling) (Greene et al. 2022) could better capture the complex relationships between brain and behavior reflected in large diverse datasets such as ABCD.

We show that reproducible brain-behavior associations can be obtained with dozens, rather than thousands, of individuals, helping to quell growing concerns of the demise of reproducible results with neuroimaging. Our findings help shed clarity on the utility of neuroimaging studies, particularly for understanding normative and aberrant neurodevelopment, and present a more hopeful view for future funding priorities of smaller neuroimaging studies and policy decisions.

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Author contributions

Carolina Makowski (Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Project administration, Validation, Visualization, Writing—original draft, Writing—review & editing), Timothy T. Brown (Conceptualization, Writing—review & editing), Weiqi Zhao (Data curation, Methodology, Writing—review & editing), Donald J. Hagler (Data curation, Software, Writing—review & editing), Pravesh Parekh (Methodology, Writing—review & editing), Hugh Garavan (Writing—review & editing), Thomas Nichols (Methodology, Writing—review & editing), Terry Jernigan (Conceptualization, Investigation, Project administration, Writing—review & editing), Anders Dale (Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing—review & editing).

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *Cerebral Cortex* online.

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over time. Data were drawn from the NIMH Data Archive ABCD Collection Release 4.0 (DOI: [10.15154/1523041](https://doi.org/10.15154/1523041)).

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