

# Visual QC Protocol for FreeSurfer Cortical Parcellations from Anatomical MRI

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#### **ABSTRACT**

Quality control of morphometric neuroimaging data is essential to improve reproducibility. Owing to the complexity of neuroimaging data and subsequently the interpretation of their results, visual inspection by trained raters is the most reliable way to perform quality control. Here, we present a protocol for visual quality control of the anatomical accuracy of FreeSurfer parcellations, based on an easy-to-use open-source tool called VisualQC. We comprehensively evaluate its utility in terms of error detection rate and inter-rater reliability on two large multi-site datasets and discuss site differences in error patterns. This evaluation shows that VisualQC is a practically viable protocol for community adoption.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Morphometric analysis is central to much of neuroimaging research, as a structural T1-weighted magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI) scan is almost always acquired in all neuroimaging studies for a variety of reasons. The sMRI scans are used in a number of important ways including as a reference volume for multimodal alignment, delineating anatomical regions of interest (ROIs), and deriving a number of imaging markers such as volumetric, shape, and topological properties. FreeSurfer (FS) is a popular software package for fully automated processing of structural T1-weighted MRI (T1w-MRI) scans, often to produce a whole-brain cortical reconstruction of the human brain, including the aforementioned outputs (1).

Hence, rigorous quality control (QC) of FS outputs is crucial to ensure the quality and to improve the reproducibility of subsequent neuroimaging research results.

FS processing is often completed without any issues when the properties of input sMRI scans are favorable for automatic processing. The ideal characteristics of the input sMRI scans include, but are not limited to, strong tissue contrast, high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), absence of intensity inhomogeneities, absence of imaging artifacts (e.g., due to motion and other challenges during acquisition), and lack of pathology-related confounds. In the absence of one or more of such ideal characteristics, which is often the case in large multi-site neuroimaging studies, and owing to the challenging nature of the fully automatic whole-brain reconstruction, FS processing

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leads to errors in parcellation. Failure to identify and/or correct such errors could result in inaccurate and irreproducible results. Hence, robust FS QC is crucial.

Research into developing assistive tools and protocols for the QC of morphological data can be roughly divided into the following categories:

- visual protocols for rating the quality of the sMRI scan as a whole (2,3). These protocols are helpful as QC of input sMRI is required at the MRI acquisition stage (e.g., to increase sample sizes) as well as at the subsequent archival and sharing stages (to improve the quality and reproducibility of analyses)
- assistive tools (manual as well as automatic) to expedite the algorithms for automated assessment of the sMRI quality (4–12). Some of these tools may employ image quality metrics (IQMs) (13), or metrics from derived outputs produced by FS and related tools, to aid in the prediction of scan quality. The IQMs can be extracted directly from the scan itself (e.g., properties of intensity distributions) or be based on one or more of the FS outputs (e.g., Euler number and volumetric and thickness estimates)
- image processing algorithms to detect imaging artifacts such as motion and ghosting (14–16).

However, much of the previous research has been limited to rating the quality of input sMRI scan but not the quality of subsequently derived outputs such as FS parcellation. The FS team provides a troubleshooting guide (TSG) (17), that is, a series of visual checks and manual edits for a diverse set of outputs it produces. While this guide is comprehensive, it is guite laborious to perform even for a single subject, presents a steep learning curve to typical neuroimaging researchers, and is simply infeasible to employ on the large datasets that are commonplace today. Hence, assistive tools and protocols to expedite or automate this tedious FS QC process are essential. There has been a notable effort in developing protocols (18) as well as assistive tools (10,11) for the QC of FS outputs. While the mindcontrol webapp (10) is more accessible (being browser based) and provides easy navigation through the dataset, the overall QC process is no different from the FS's recommended TSG (which employs tkmedit and slice-by-slice review) and hence is still slow and labor intensive. While operating in the cloud using a browser interface may present some benefits of accessibility, the complicated initial setup creates an additional barrier for non-expert users (large amounts of costly cloud storage space), issues related to privacy and anonymization (transferring imaging data to the cloud), as well as creating a major dependency on the cloud makes it unreliable and/or slow. Moreover, it does not present the important visualizations for the pial surface (see Figure 1, Panel B), which are necessary to identify any topological defects.

In another related effort to reduce the QC burden as well as rater subjectivity, Klapwijk et al. (11) developed

a statistical model to automatically predict a composite quality rating based on a combination of properties of input T1w MRI scan (presence of motion) and a few checks on the FS outputs. Their predictive model demonstrated very good performance (>80% accuracy; varying depending on evaluation setup) in discriminating "Failed scans" from the rest (rated as Excellent, Good, or Doubtful). However, the rater agreement in this manual QC protocol was as low as 7.5%, that is, only six subjects out of 80 had ratings with a complete agreement among the five raters, increasing to >85% when the majority rating is used to evaluate the agreement. This may likely be due to the composite rating used (based on both input T1w MRI scan and FS outputs), which confounds the ratings, making it harder to disambiguate the source of bad quality (input vs. output), and hence making it a non-ideal comparison target. Moreover, their extensive analyses clearly highlight an important need for reliable and accurate ratings with high inter-rater reliability (IRR).

Aiming to deliver a quick method to QC FS outputs from multiple large datasets, the Enhancing Neuro ImaGing through Meta-Analysis (ENIGMA) consortium (19) developed a fast and useful visual rating protocol for FS QC (denoted by ENQC) based on a set of batch processing scripts, visualizations embedded in html and manual ratings collected in a spreadsheet. ENQC is a practical approach to greatly expedite an otherwise tedious process by selecting four volumetric slices for inspection. While drastically reducing the amount of work for the rater, this also greatly increases the likelihood of missing subtle errors, as they may fall between or outside the limited number of views. Moreover, having to deal with multiple disparate tools without clear integration (spreadsheets, shell scripts, html, etc.) leads to much higher human error (in maintaining integrity across multiple spreadsheets with complex identifiers), especially in large datasets.

To address the complexity and limitations of the various tools we mentioned so far (including ENQC) and the need for more reliable and accurate QC ratings, we developed VisualQC (4), a new open-source QC rating framework, designed to ease the burden involving any visual QC tasks in neuroimaging research. The tool to rate the quality of FS parcellations is one of the many within VisualQC, which are built on a generic visual rating framework that is modular and extensible, allowing for manual/visual QC of virtually any digital medical data. Other tools within VisualQC include quality rating and artifact identification within T1w MRI, Echo Planar Imaging (EPI), and Diffusion Tensor Imaging (DTI) scans, as well as tools to easily check the accuracy of registration, defacing, and volumetric segmentation algorithms. VisualQC's custom-designed rating interface for FS parcellation provides a seamless workflow, integrating all the necessary data and visualizations to achieve a high rating accuracy.

Based on a systematic study of two large multi-site datasets, from the Ontario Brain Institute (OBI): the

Canadian Biomarker Integration Network in Depression (CAN-BIND) and the Ontario Neurodegeneration Research Initiative (ONDRI) programs, we show that the VisualQC protocol leads to a higher and more reliable error detection rate (EDR) than ENQC. As visual inspection is a subjective process, it is prone to bias or variation in a rater's judgment and interpretation, especially in the case of subtle errors and those within tricky regions (with convoluted contours on 2D cross-sectional slices) such as entorhinal cortex (EC), parahippocampal gyrus, and superior temporal sulcus. Hence, we also quantify the IRR for each combination of the dataset, for the two protocols ENQC and VisualQC. Our goal in choosing these two datasets is to evaluate the protocols on a diverse range of participants. In addition, we also chose to evaluate the QC protocols for two different versions of FS: v5.3 and v6.0, as the parcellation accuracy and error patterns differ for different versions, and these two have been in use widely. These combinations would expose our study to a diverse range of issues, as well as test the reproducibility and robustness of the protocol to differing datasets and software versions. Given the multi-site nature of these datasets, we also investigated site-wise differences in error patterns of FS cortical parcellations. In particular, we built a predictive model of the site to identify the factors influencing site-wise differences in FS error patterns. Based on this comprehensive evaluation, we show that VisualQC outperforms ENQC for FS QC, becoming a strong candidate for a community consensus protocol for the visual QC rating of FS parcellations.

#### **METHODS**

#### **Datasets**

We analyzed two large multi-site datasets that were drawn from previous studies: (i) the CAN-BIND with 308 participants (20,21) and (ii) the Parkinson's disease cohort from the ONDRI (22,23), with 140 participants. The demographics of the two datasets are shown in Table 1. More detailed information on site differences, in terms of vendors, models, and acquisition parameter information, is presented in Appendix A.

# **Processing**

All scans in the two datasets were processed with the FS cross-sectional pipeline (1), to obtain the default whole-brain reconstruction with no special flags. No manual editing was performed on the output parcellation from FS, to focus the analysis purely on fully automatic processing. Each dataset was processed with two widely used versions of 5.3 and 6.0, on a CentOS 6 Linux operating system in a Compute Canada high-performance computing cluster.

Table 1. Demographics for the two multi-site datasets in this study.

Dataset	N	Male/ Female	Age	Group	
CAN-BIND	308	110/198	34.45 (12.13)	Healthy controls ( $n = 111$ ) Major depressive disorder ( $n = 197$ )	
ONDRI	140	109/31	67.94 (6.35)	Parkinson's disease ( $n = 140$ )	

All statistics here are displayed in mean (SD) format.

#### **Rating methodology**

The primary purpose of FS QC via manual visual rating is to identify parcellation errors and rate their level, for example, as Pass, Major error, Minor error, [complete] Fail, etc. An error in FS cortical parcellation occurs when the pial or white surface does not follow their respective tissue-class boundaries, such as gray matter (GM) and white matter (WM), respectively.

Initially, error inspection was completed by three raters, following protocols from ENQC. Briefly, ENQC rates the quality of the parcellation based on two types of visualizations: (i) Internal QC: four cross-sectional slices in coronal and axial views overlaying the labels voxel-wise on top of the input T1w MRI in opaque color (see Figure 1), and (ii) External QC: four views of the anatomical regional labels visualized on the fsaverage surface. 1 If there are no issues of any kind in the internal or external QC, it is rated as Pass in that corresponding section. Parcellation errors localized to particular regions are labeled as Moderate, whereas the presence of severe errors, large mislabeling, misregistration, and imaging artifacts as well as global failures would be rated as Fail. Location of the error, in terms of left (L) or right (R) hemispheres as well as the particular ROI, is also noted, following the FS Color Lookup Table (FSCLUT) [link].

The FS QC interface for VisualQC is shown in Figure 2. This is highly customized for rating the accuracy of FS parcellation and presents a comprehensive picture in all the relevant views: contours of pial and white surfaces in all three cross-sectional views with at least 12 slices per view (default is two rows of six slices, but it is customizable), along with six views of the pial surface (in the top row). The cortical labels in both the cross-sectional and surface views are color annotated in the same manner as the FS's tksurfer tool to leverage the familiarity of the default color scheme. This design, while rigorous, still allows for rapid review of the quality and bookkeeping of the rating along with any other notes. For our three raters, compared to ENQC, VisualQC enabled recording additional intermediate levels, encoded as Pass, Minor Error, Major Error, and [complete] Fail. The locations of parcellation errors are also noted in VisualQC using the Notes section in the rating interface below the radio

<sup>1</sup> Please refer to the VisualQC manual for illustrations of the two protocols at URL: https://github.com/raamana/visualqc/blob/master/docs/VisualQC\_TrainingManual\_v1p4.pdf

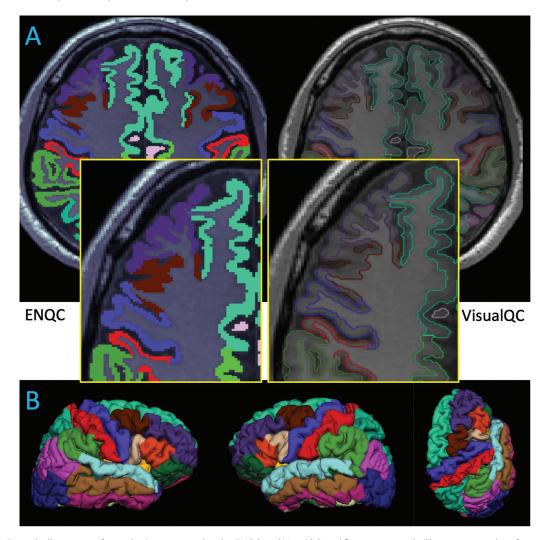


Fig. 1. Panel (A): Example illustrations of a single slice presented in the ENQC and VisualQC workflows, respectively. The opaque overlay of cortical labels in ENQC makes it harder to see the boundaries of white and gray matter and leads to errors in judging the accuracy of pial/white surfaces. Panel (B): Illustration of external surface visualizations annotating a typical FS parcellation on the fsaverage surface. These are integrated into the default interface of VisualQC to enable easy detection of any topological defects and mislabeling, which is not the case with ENQC creating additional sources of error and burden.

Table 2. Rough categorization of the common parcellation errors from FreeSurfer, their locations, and frequencies.

Common error	Location	Severity	Frequency
Global fail	Large portions of brain missing	Fail	<1%
Pial overestimate	Postcentral, precentral, superior parietal	Moderate	~30%
Pial underestimate	Temporal pole, superior temporal, inferior temporal	Moderate	~35%
ROI misclassification	Banks of superior temporal sulcus	Moderate	~25%
	Pericalcarine, lingual, cuneus	Moderate	~25–30%
	Insula	Minor	~30%
	Entorhinal cortex, parahippocampal	Minor	~80–100%
	Cingulate	Minor	~5–10%

buttons for rating, using the same names and codes as in the FSCLUT.

FS parcellation errors can be roughly categorized as in Table 2. Their names are self-explanatory, and their frequencies for these common errors are estimated from the rating data presented in this manuscript. The

detailed rating system, along with definitions and examples for different levels of errors, is presented in Section 3.4 of the VisualQC manual at github.com/raamana/visualqc. The direct URL for the current version v1.4 of the manual is https://github.com/raamana/visualqc/blob/master/docs/VisualQC\_TrainingManual\_v1p4.pdf.

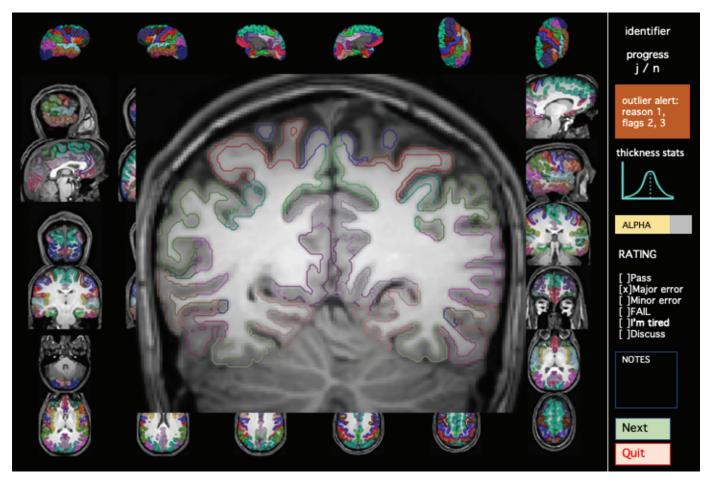


Fig. 2. An instance of the VisualQC interface for the rating of parcellation accuracy of FreeSurfer output. This customized interface presents a comprehensive picture of the parcellation in all the relevant views: contours of pial and white surfaces in all three cross-sectional views with 12 slices each, along with six views of the pial surface, color annotated with corresponding cortical labels. This design, while rigorous, still allows for rapid review of the quality and bookkeeping of the rating along with any other notes.

#### **Exceptions to rating**

Accurate parcellation in highly convoluted areas such as the EC, parahippocampal gyrus (PH), and insula (IN) is highly challenging. Although FS is generally accurate in many regions of the cortex in the absence of imaging quality issues, it routinely is erroneous in these ROIs (see Figure 3, and quantification below). Minor errors in these ROIs are so common, ENQC protocol chose to rate them as Pass (ignoring them for the overall quality of the whole-brain parcellation), so long as the errors are minor and the parcellation is free from any other issues. This is in line with the official TSG (17), which recommends avoiding editing these minor errors to avoid introducing bias and reducing reliability. In the VisualQC protocol, we choose to note them as Minor Error in the interest of recording the most accurate reflection of the parcellation quality. Our data confirm that these errors are almost universal: only 4/2688 ratings from three raters (0.1%) were free from errors in EC, PH, and IN.

In our statistical analyses comparing error frequencies, we have recoded minor errors in EC, PH, and IN with no other issues in VisualQC ratings as *Pass*, to make them commensurable with ENQC. A similar approach is taken with minor errors (over- and underestimates) in superior frontal (SF) (interacting with the cingulate gyrus), superior parietal (interacting with cuneus and/or precuneus), supramarginal gyrus (also impacts superior temporal (ST)), and middle temporal (MT) gyrus (interacting with inferior temporal (IT)).

### **Error statistics**

#### **Error detection rate**

EDR for a brain region was calculated as the number of participants with detected errors, divided by the total number of participants in that dataset. For valid comparison with VisualQC in quantifying EDR, we considered a parcellation as *Pass* in ENQC only when it is rated as *Pass* in both Internal and External evaluations, and as *Fail* 

for all other combinations. Under the VisualQC protocol, only *Pass* is considered *Pass*, and any other rating as *Fail*. This statistic helps us judge which FS version is generally more accurate, and how that performance is related to experimental conditions (e.g. site, scanner). EDR was calculated separately for each dataset, FS version, and rating protocol.

#### **Demographic trends**

In addition to the region-, rater-, and site-wise analysis of parcellation errors, it may be interesting to understand trends in parcellation errors by different subgroups in demographics, such as age, gender, and patient diagnosis. This would help us identify if there is a pattern in errors as well as how the different QC protocols behave in different population subgroups. We present this demographic breakdown of error statistics with a series of visualizations in Appendix D.

#### Inter-rater reliability

The ratings were hierarchical in nature as each rating was initially approached with a Fail versus Pass mindset, which was then followed by dividing the Fail category further into multiple levels (Major vs. Minor vs. complete Fail). As the interval between the Major versus Minor errors and Minor versus Fail can and does differ, they cannot be treated as simple numerical variables. Given subjectivity in rating error severity – what one rater may perceive as minor error could be perceived as major error by another reviewer, especially when traversing across the entire brain covering diverse ROIs, the ordering of error severities is not preserved across raters, and hence they cannot be treated as ordinal variables either.

Therefore, we encoded them as categorical variables to produce valid statistics to respect their properties and measurement methods. IRR for ratings was computed based on the most native form of ratings possible, such as "Pass," "Major Error," "Minor Error," and "Fail" for VisualQC. For ENQC, the concatenated ratings from Internal and External QC used for IRR calculations are "Pass\_Pass," "Pass\_Fail," "Fail\_Pass," and "Fail\_Fail."

We quantified IRR using the Fleiss Kappa statistic on ratings from the three raters (24,25), separately for each dataset, FS version, and rating protocol. In addition, we have also bootstrapped this computation 100 times selecting 80% of the sample for each combination, to analyze the stability of estimates.

#### **Automatic site identification**

Another way to demonstrate the site differences is by trying to automatically predict the site based on morphometric features, as they play a direct role in tissue contrast and hence FS accuracy. Toward this, we computed region-wise descriptive statistics (such as mean, SEM, kurtosis, skew, and range) on all cortical features (i.e.,

thickness, area, curvature) and contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR)<sup>2</sup> values in all FS labels.

For site identification, a random forest classifier was trained on the aforementioned features to predict the site label. We evaluated its performance with *neuropredict* (26,27) using repeated-holdout cross-validation (80% training, repeated 30 times; feature selection based on f-value). This analysis is performed to demonstrate the presence of large site/scanner differences in tissue contrast patterns as they play a key role in FS parcellation accuracy, and the results are included in Appendix E. While these results may not directly relate to the central goal of this paper, that is, evaluate and compare the visual QC protocols for FS, they, however, test our expectation that the primary site/scanner-specific differences will be driven by basic CNR effects, and not other derived measures.

#### **Software**

All calculations were performed based on the scientific Python ecosystem (Python version 3.6), with the Fleiss Kappa implementation coming from the statsmodel package version 0.10.1 (28).

VisualQC is an open-source QC rating framework (4) freely and publicly available at https://github.com/raamana/visualqc. The tool to rate the quality of FS parcellations is one of the many within VisualQC, which are built on a generic visual rating framework that is modular and extensible, allowing for manual/visual QC of virtually any digital medical data. Other tools within VisualQC include quality rating and artifact identification within T1w MRI, EPI, and DTI scans, as well as tools to easily check the accuracy of registration, defacing, and volumetric segmentation algorithms. They are documented in detail at <a href="https://raamana.github.io/visualqc/">https://raamana.github.io/visualqc/</a>, which also includes a comprehensive manual to train the rater to learn and use VisualQC<sup>3</sup>.

#### **RESULTS**

#### **Error detection rate**

The EDR measured by different raters in the CAN-BIND and ONDRI datasets for FS v6 is shown in Figure 3, which reveals the following: (i) there are some ROIs that are consistently picked up as erroneous by all raters using both QC packages, for example, in the medial temporal lobe (MTL), such as the ET, ST, and PH. This is not surprising given the challenges involved in producing an accurate parcellation in these challenging areas in a fully automatic

<sup>2</sup> CNR is computed as (Mean(WM) – Mean(GM))/sqrt((Var(WM) + Var(GM))), where all data used to compute means and variances are intensity values in WM/GM

 $<sup>{\</sup>it 3~URL: https://github.com/raamana/visualqc/blob/master/docs/VisualQC\_TrainingManual\_v1p4.pdf}$ 

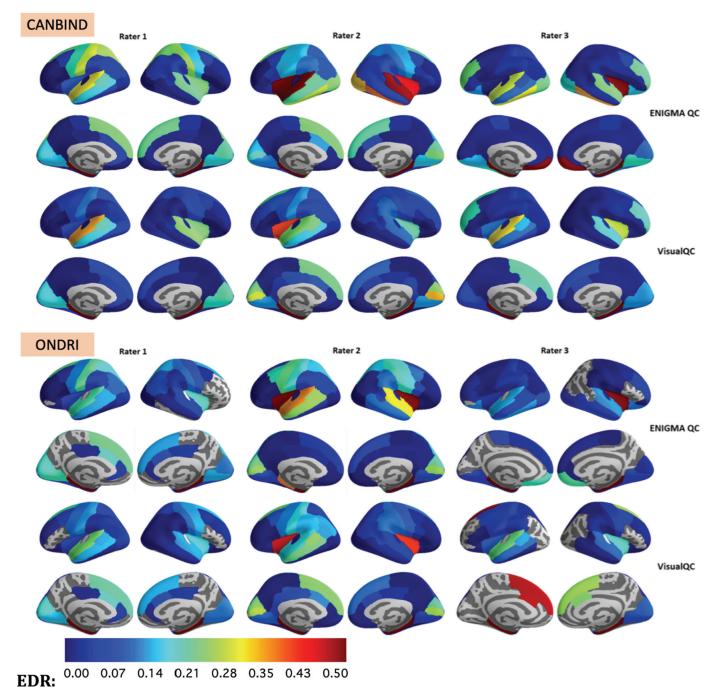


Fig. 3. Visualization showing the differences in EDR across multiple raters for FreeSurfer v6.0 parcellations in the CAN-BIND and ONDRI datasets for ENQC and VisualQC protocols. All the visualizations in this paper are annotated with the default Desikan-Killiany parcellation unless otherwise stated. The non-colored areas in gray are regions without any parcellation errors or where there is no cortex present (e.g., corpus callosum).

fashion; (ii) beyond the MTL, we notice variability in EDR patterns across the three raters, both between the two protocols and even within the same protocol; (iii) There is clear variability in EDR per region either across the raters within the same protocol or across the protocols for the same rater. This is only to be expected given the subjective task across human raters. The regions where this variability is large, both across raters and protocols, are the hard-to-segment temporal lobe ROIs as well as the central sulcus.

# **Demographic trends in error frequency:**

Visualization of the error statistics broken down by different regions, raters, and sites, and how they differ relative to each other are shown in Appendix D (Figures D1–D5). Broadly describing the trends in these figures at a higher level, we notice the EDR is consistently higher for ENQC and it is primarily driven by its high false-positive rates (FPRs) due to the opaque color overlay ENQC employs to show the parcellations the segmentation.

This is routinely observed in the precentral, postcentral, and SF regions, which can falsely present an appearance of leakage of parcellation into the dura or skull. Such errors do not occur in VisualQC due to its contour overlay design and offering the user an option to interactively toggle the overlay entirely to better assess the GM/WM contrast.

## **Error comparison**

Differences in EDR found between VisualQC and ENQC, computed as EDR(VisualQC) – EDR(ENQC) are shown in Figure 4, on the default Desikan-Killiany parcellation. We observe some interesting patterns in the difference plot. The majority of those differences in EDR can be divided into two categories:

- a higher percentage of errors detected in the temporal poles by VisualQC, in slices below that of the lowest available view using ENQC, and
- a higher percentage of errors detected by ENQC in the upper pial surface (superior parietal lobule, SF, pre-, and postcentral sulcus), primarily in the CAN-BIND cohort.

Due to ENQC's choice of an opaque overlay of segmentation labels onto the anatomical MRI (see Figure 1), this increased rate of error detection is likely due to a reduction in visibility of the structural scan itself, resulting in a higher FPR. Note: we believe errors identified via VisualQC are inherently more accurate by virtue of its superior design (much-expanded coverage of the parcellation/brain, non-opaque contour overlay with the ability to tweak their transparency levels, including switching them off).

#### **Inter-rater reliability**

The IRR estimates for different combinations of datasets and FS versions are presented in Table 3 for the two protocols. This shows that VisualQC is more reliable across the board. In addition, the bootstrapped estimates (presented in Appendix B) are quite identical to those shown in Table 3. We believe this is due to presenting the rater with a vastly more comprehensive view of parcellation, the ability to zoom in to each slice as well as toggle the tissue contour overlay to evaluate the anatomical accuracy in a confident manner.

#### **Site differences**

Given FS performance is dependent on the quality of the input T1w MRI scan and the underlying tissue contrast, we wanted to study if the acquisition site played any role in EDR and whether different sites presented different error patterns. Hence, we visualized the parcellation

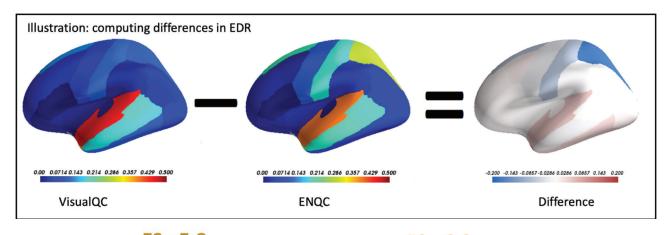
errors segregated by site, which are presented in Figure 5 for the CAN-BIND dataset processed with FS v6.0. This visualization illustrates the large variability across sites in multiple ROIs of the brain across the cortex. This variability can also be observed even in the frequently erroneous temporal lobe regions.

The corresponding site differences for the ONDRI dataset (FS v6.0) are shown in Figure 6. We observe some clear patterns common across the sites here, such as the relatively higher error rate observed in the medial temporal lobe (MTL) and SF cortex.

Although a higher error rate is expected in MTL, which was also observed in the CAN-BIND dataset, a similar high error rate in SF is an interesting surprise.

#### **DISCUSSION**

In this paper, we visualize the patterns in EDR for two different external protocols and evaluate their utility and reliability in different dimensions. In the context of FS QC broadly speaking, the TSG recommended by the FS team is another common occurrence. TSG is a useful practical guide to not just identify common issues but also fix them with specific changes to intermediate outputs and with some additional processing. However, it is not a quality rating protocol per se, like ENQC or VisualQC, as it is a guide toward identifying common errors FS makes and how to fix them via manual editing. The approach recommended in the TSG boils down to traversing every single slice one at a time and checking the parcellation accuracy, which although being close to the best one can do (gold standard), is quite time consuming and simply not feasible for even for somewhat small datasets, let alone large datasets. That is the basis for the development of protocols like ENQC and VisualQC. As for the EDR, following the TSG would result in labeling almost all the parcellations as erroneous. Based on our experience of QCing 1000s of scans from many datasets covering a gamut of demographics and sites, we are confident that the EDR would be 100% when following the TSG or any other process requiring inspection of every single slice/ROI. EDR would be very close to 100% not just because FS algorithms have issues but mainly due to the immense complexity involved in the whole-brain reconstruction process in a fully automatic fashion. As noted in the Methods sub-section "Exceptions to Rating," the EDR for VisualQC taking all the minor errors identified into account, is 99.9% (only four combinations out of 2688 were free from any errors). To reinforce the point, this was based on only looking at the 36 cross sections, and if we increased them further, we would very likely identify issues in those four combinations as well. This implies (i) there were no false positives and (ii) there is no loss of quality of rating in employing VisualQC protocol, and there are only benefits to be had in terms of efficiency and productivity.



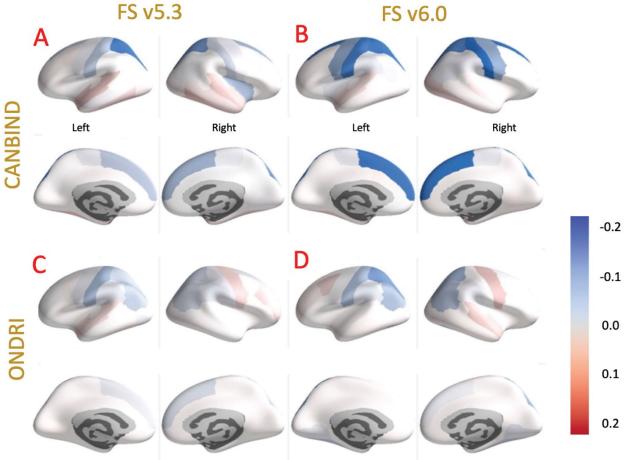


Fig. 4. Percentage differences of error detection found between ENQC and VisualQC, where a negative value (in blue) indicates that ENQC detected a greater percentage of errors, whereas a positive value (in red) indicates that VisualQC found a greater percentage of errors, for that dataset and version of Freesurfer. The color bars for all panels visualizing the EDR differences range from -0.2 to 0.2. The four panels shown below are as follows: (A) CAN-BIND, FS v5.3, (B) CAN-BIND, FS v6.0, (C) ONDRI, FS v5.3, and (D) ONDRI, FS v6.0. Each panel shows lateral/medial views of the EDR map in top/bottom rows, respectively.

TABLE 3. Inter-rater reliability (IRR) estimates for the three raters for different combinations of the dataset and FreeSurfer versions.

	CAN-BIND v6.0	ONDRI v6.0	CAN-BIND v5.3	ONDRI v5.3
ENQC	0.28	0.215	0.36	0.25
VisualQC	0.64	0.54	0.58	0.56

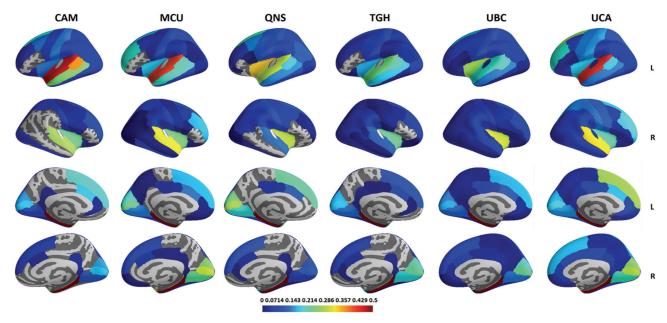


Fig. 5. Visualization of the site differences in error ratings (average of the percent errors across the three raters) across different sites for the CAN-BIND dataset (FS v6.0).

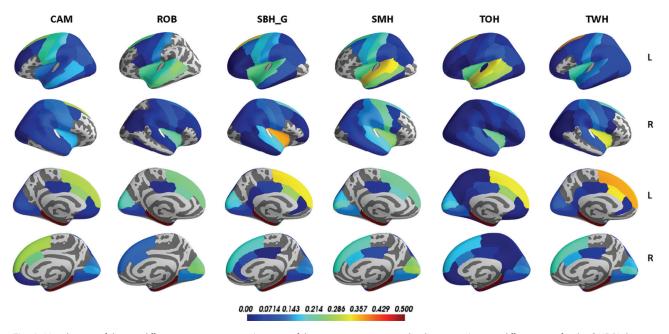


Fig. 6. Visualization of the site differences in error ratings (average of the percent errors across the three raters) across different sites for the ONDRI dataset (FS v6.0).

In addition to rating accuracy, protocol efficiency is important given the steadily increasing size of the neuroimaging datasets. Relative to VisualQC, ENQC is slower and more erroneous because of the need to obtain and manage a disparate collection of tools (n > 3: external QC, internal QC, separate spreadsheets for note taking, outlier prompts, etc.) to rate a single subject, whereas that is all fully integrated and seamless in a single VisualQC interface. We estimate our interface would be roughly at least 3–5 times faster. In the default configurations,

we estimate it takes about 20 s for a trained rater in VisualQC, whereas it may take a minute or two in ENQC. That is reinforced further when we take the ease of initial installation and future upgrades into account (one command for us vs. manual management of many for ENQC). That is reinforced further when we take the ease of initial installation and future upgrades into account (one command for us vs. manual management of many for ENQC). It must be noted the efficiency/processing times can vary based on the type of configuration one may choose for

VisualQC and goals of the specific QC task (number of slices per view, series, and type of checks made, along with how thorough the rater is with the notes they make).

While we find the IRR for VisualQC is relatively higher than ENQC, we can further improve it in a few ways, for example, by reducing the subjectivity in the rating system when possible.

Discounting the irreducible human subjectivity, we can design the training protocol to be more comprehensive to develop consensus on typical disagreements. Another possibility could be to increase the number of checkpoints to review before rating, but this option comes with the tradeoffs of additional burden and slower processing time.

As easy and integrated as VisualQC is, manual QC still is not effortless, especially with the increasingly large sample sizes reaching many 10s of thousands today. Hence, an automated tool to predict the quality of a given FS parcellation without human rating would be useful in reducing the QC burden. A frequently requested feature is an automatic tool to identify clear failures and major errors sufficiently accurately, so the raters can focus on the subtle and minor errors, which would expedite the QC process significantly. However, as highlighted by previous efforts in this direction (11), the development of accurate automatic predictive QC tools requires that we have a reliable approach to create ground truth (via visual QC) for these tools to be trained on and optimized for. Development of such a reliable protocol as a candidate for community adoption was the main thrust of this paper. Based on this protocol, we plan to pursue

to development of a predictive tool and validate it for different application scenarios such as high sensitivity (not missing even a single bad parcellation) or more narrowly to clear certain ROIs (posterior cingulate gyrus or MTL, etc.) of any errors. Other frequently requested features that VisualQC does not currently support, but plan to develop in the future, are (i) the ability to *correct* the errors as they are identified on the VisualQC interface, (ii) automatic recording of the location(s) of the erroneous parcellation, (iii) ability to dig deeper (via zooming in or selective highlights) on a single ROI (such as precuneus) while switching off everything, and (iv) intelligent slice selection or incorporating application-specific domain knowledge to improve the speed or accuracy of the visual QC task at hand.

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

In this study, we presented a viable protocol for the visual QC of FS parcellations based on an open-source QC library. Based on a systematic comparison, we demonstrate that this VisualQC protocol leads to relatively lower FPR and higher IRR for the manual QC of FS parcellation relative to ENQC. We characterized its utility and performance on two large multi-site datasets showing it is robust across two different age ranges and disease classes. Moreover, it is seamless and is significantly faster than following ENQC or the standard FS TSG. Further, we highlight the need to be cognizant of the site differences in parcellation errors.

# **Appendix A: Site information**

The two datasets studied here are large and multi-site by design. The detailed information on site differences in terms of acquisition parameters and scanners have been carefully tabulated in the respective dataset papers for ONDRI (23) and CAN-BIND (20).

#### CAN-BIND:

Site	Toronto General/ Western Hospital (TGH)	Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (CAM)	McMaster University (MCU)	University of Calgary (UCA)	University of British Columbia (UBC)	Queens University (QNS)
Scanner model	GE 3T Signa HDxt	GE 3T Discovery MR750	GE 3T Discovery MR750	GE 3T Discovery MR750	Philips 3T Intera	Siemens 3T TrioTim
Coil	GE 8HRBRAIN	GE 8HRBRAIN	GE HNS Head	GE HNS Head	SENSE-Head-8	12-channel head matrix coil
Software version	HD16.0_V02_1 131.a	DV24.0_R01_1 344.a	DV25.0_R02_1 549.b	DV25.0_R02_1 549.b	3.2.3,3.2.3.1	syngo MR B19
TR (ms)	7.5	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.57	1760
TE (ms)	2.86	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.2
TI (ms)	450	450	450	450	950	950
Flip angle (degree)	15	15	15	15	8	15
Pixel bandwidth	260	260	260	260	241	199
Matrix dimension (pixels)	240 × 240	240 × 240	240 × 240	240 × 240	240 × 240	256 × 256
Voxel dimension (mm)	1 × 1 × 1	1 × 1 × 1	1 × 1 × 1	$1 \times 1 \times 1$	1 × 1 × 1	1 × 1 × 1
Number of slices Number of subjects	176 71	180 16	180 50	180 66	180 72	192 31

#### ONDRI:

Site	Robarts Research Institute (ROB)	Sunnybrook Health Sciences (SBH)	St. Michael's Hospital (SMH)	The Ottawa Hospital (TOH)	Toronto Western Hospital (TWH)	Center for Addiction and Mental Health (CAM)
Scanner	Siemens 3T Prisma fit	GE 3T Discovery MR750	Siemens 3T Skyra	Siemens 3T Trio Tim	GE 3T Signa HDxt	GE 3T Discovery MR750
TR (ms)	[2300:2300]	[8.156:8.156]	[2300:2300]	[2300:2300]	[6.9:7.3]	[6.652:6.652]
TE (ms)	[2.98:2.98]	[3.18:2.18]	[2.03:2.03]	[2.96:2.96]	[2.8:3.1]	[2.298:2.298]
TI (ms)	[900:900]	[400:400]	[900:900]	[900:900]	[400:400]	[400:400]
Flip angle (degree)	[9:9]	[11:11]	[9:9]	[9:9]	[11:11]	[11:11]
Pixel bandwidth	[240:240]	[244.141:244.141]	[240:240]	[240:240]	[244.141:244.141]	[244.141:244.141]
Matrix dimension (pixels)	[256 × 256: 256 × 256]	[256 × 256: 256 × 256]	[256 × 256: 256 × 256]	[256 × 256: 256 × 256]	[256 × 256: 256 × 256]	[256 × 256: 256 × 256]
Voxel dimension (mm)	$[1 \times 1 \times 1 : 1 \times 1 \times 1]$	$[1 \times 1 \times 1:1 \times 1 \times 1]$	$[1 \times 1 \times 1:1 \times 1 \times 1]$	$[1 \times 1 \times 1:1 \times 1 \times 1]$	$[1 \times 1 \times 1; 1 \times 1 \times 1]$	$[1 \times 1 \times 1 : 1 \times 1 \times 1]$
Number of slices	[176:176]	[176:176]	[192:192]	[176:176]	[176:176]	[176:176]
Number of subjects	17	29	12	38	30	13

# Appendix B: Bootstrapped results of inter-rater reliability

The bootstrapped estimates (80% of the sample, repeated 100 times) of the IRR for the three raters for different combinations of the dataset and FS versions are shown below:

	CAN-BIND v6.0	ONDRI v6.0	CAN-BIND v5.3	ONDRI v5.3
ENQC	0.279 (0.02)	0.215 (0.033)	0.361 (0.022)	0.249 (0.026)
VisualQC	0.635 (0.028)	0.539 (0.046)	0.586 (0.03)	0.555 (0.041)

# Appendix C: Distributions of derived features in erroneous and accurate ROIs

To help us better understand the differences between erroneous and accurate ROIs, we have visualized the distributions of derived features such as the cortical thickness between the subjects that were rated as erroneous and those that were not, for each FS label separately. They are shown in the plot below for the 12 most erroneous ROIs from the CAN-BIND dataset processed with FS v6.0. Distributions colored with green are from ROIs rated as accurate, and those colored with blue and red are from the erroneous ROIs from the healthy and disease cohorts, respectively. It must be noted that we did not collect the exact coordinates of the errors in each FS label and are visualizing the distributions of the thickness of the entire label from many thousands of vertices in each panel. Such massive distribution has the potential to drown any subtle differences from the exact location of erroneous vertices.

A clear pattern of errors we can see in these visualizations (shown below) are the peaks at 0 mm (considered erroneous) for the labels entorhinal (Row 1 Col 3), parahippocampal (R2:C4), and temporal pole (R3:C4). While

we do see a green peak (although smaller, from some fraction of subjects for the ROIs rated as not-erroneous), this is likely coming from slices not reviewed or missed by the quality rater and serves as another reminder of how complex the review process is and how tedious proper QC can be. However, we do notice much larger peaks at 0 mm for the erroneous groups, which implies we were able to catch those errors with our QC protocol. We also see a noticeable difference in the shape of the no-error versus error distributions in the panel corresponding temporal pole (R3:C4).

As noted before, given we are visualizing the distributions of the thickness of the entire label from many thousands of vertices, we may be drowning in any subtle differences, from the typical parcellation errors we notice in FS. When big global segmentation failures do happen, it can result in the 0-mm peaks as identified earlier.

As the overlap of distributions is pretty clear, we do not think it is necessary for any statistics to show that they do not significantly differ from each other. However, we included them (along with corresponding versions for sulcal depth and curvature), in the revised version for improved readability for the community.

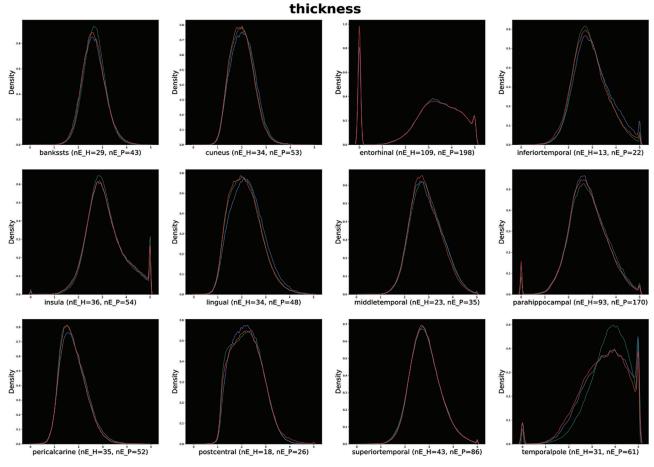


Fig. C1. Distributions of vertex-wise cortical thickness in different ROIs grouped as erroneous or not (and further subdivided by healthy vs. patient). The x-axis refers to the thickness values, that are non-negative, with a typical average value of 2.5mm and a typical maximum value of about 5mm. The y-axis refers to the fraction of the ROIs at a particular value. The name of the ROI is noted in each panel's x-axis label along with the number of erroneous subjects in each category.

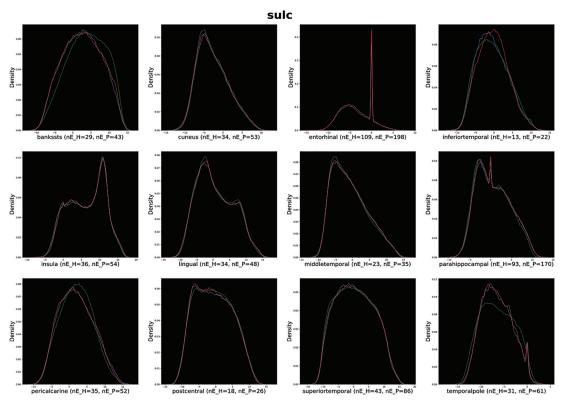


Fig. C2. Distributions of vertex-wise sulcal depth in different ROIs rated and grouped as erroneous or not (and further subdivided by healthy vs. patient). The x-axis refers to the sulcal depth values, whose range includes negative values, whereas the y-axis refers to the fraction of the ROIs at a particular value. The name of the ROI is noted in each panel's x-axis label along with the number of erroneous subjects in each category.

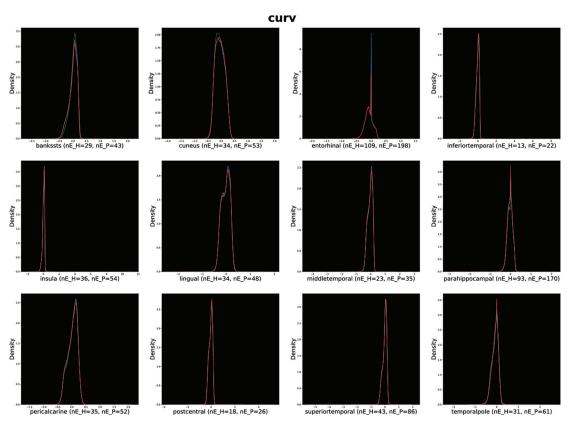
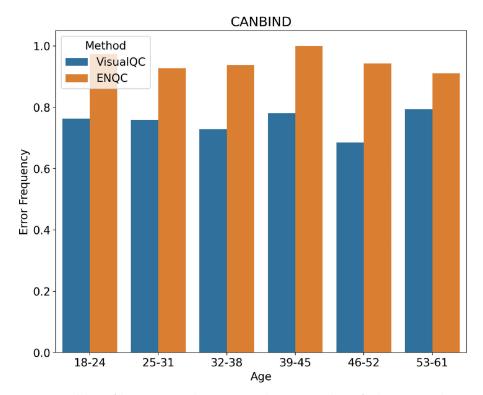


Fig. C3. Distributions of vertex-wise curvature in different ROIs grouped as erroneous or not (and further subdivided by healthy vs. patient). The x-axis refers to the curvature values, whose range can include negative values, whereas the y-axis refers to the fraction of the ROIs at a particular value. The name of the ROI is noted in each panel's x-axis label along with the number of erroneous subjects in each category.

# **Appendix D: Demographic breakdown of error statistics**

The breakdown of error frequencies by different common subgroups of demographics is shown below:



**Fig. D1.** Breakdown of the error statistics by age group in the CAN-BIND dataset for the two protocols. It is evident from this visualization that ENQC consistently produces higher FPR across all age groups.

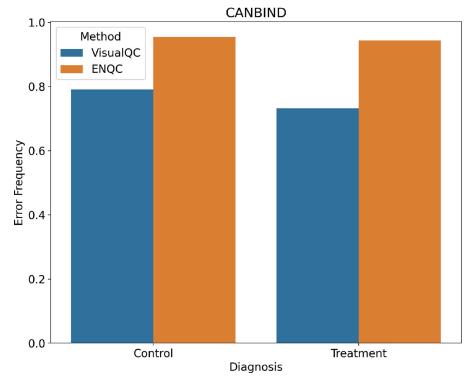


Fig. D2. Breakdown of the error statistics in the CAN-BIND dataset by diagnostic group.

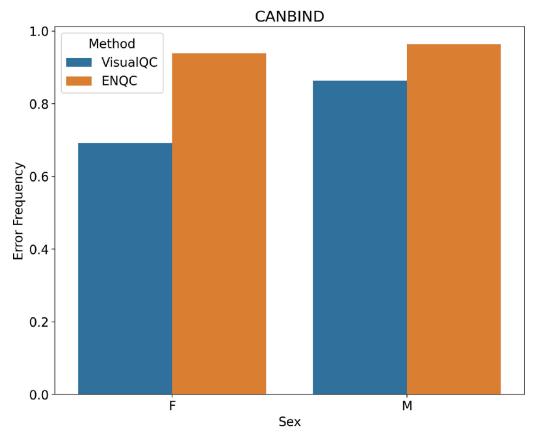


Fig. D3. Breakdown of the error statistics in the CAN-BIND dataset by participant sex.

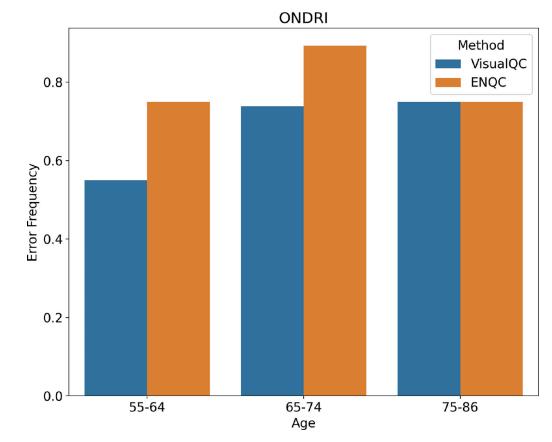


Fig. D4. Breakdown of the error statistics in the ONDRI dataset by age group.

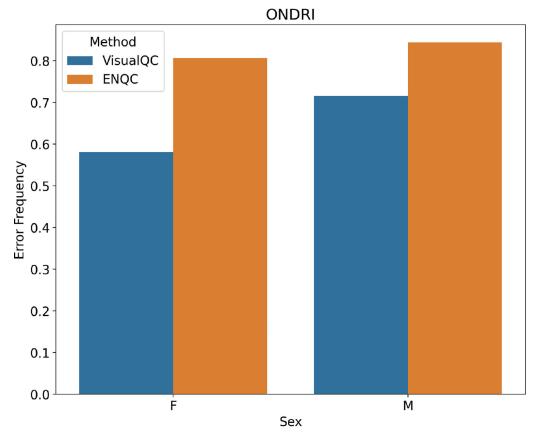


Fig. D5. Breakdown of the error statistics in the ONDRI dataset by sex for the two protocols

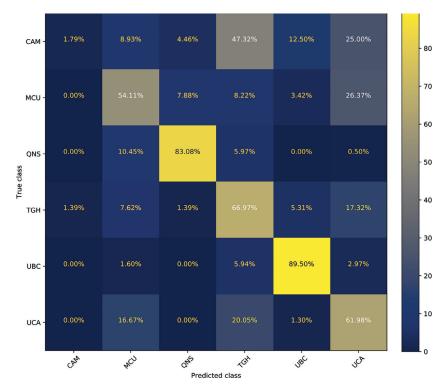
# **Appendix E: Automatic site identification**

The performance estimates of a predictive model for automatic site identification on the FS v6 outputs from the CAN-BIND dataset are visualized in the confusion matrix shown in Figure E1. This shows that some sites, especially UBC and QNS, are readily identifiable with over 80% accuracy. Given the chance accuracy in this 6-class experiment is 16%, sites TGH, MCU, and UCA seem relatively easily identifiable as well.

It is rather interesting CAM and MCU have often been misclassified (>25%) as UCA, which can also be seen in the similarity of site-wise error patterns in Figure 5. Moreover, all these three sites use the same scanner (GE 3.0T Discovery MR750), which might explain the confusion exhibited by the site-predicting classifier. However, it must be noted CAM also got misclassified as TGH 47% of the time, whereas TGH has never been misclassified as CAM (1.39%). Such asymmetric prediction might have been a result of the small sample size for CAM (n = 16), which might be causing challenges for the predictive model in learning a unique profile for this site and/or skew toward the majority classes to improve performance. This anomaly is interesting and worthy of further future investigation. Please refer to Appendix A for more details on the scanner models and acquisition parameters.

The corresponding feature importance values (median values from the 30 repetitions of cross-validation) are visualized in Figure E2. It is quite clear from the top 10 features that CNR played a crucial role in site identification, and their source ROIs are in challenging areas such as the lateral occipital cortex, fusiform gyrus, cuneus, postcentral gyrus, superior parietal cortex, and temporal lobe. These site-differentiating ROIs are difficult to identify just based on raw patterns shown in visualizations such as Figure 5.

We have also performed the site differences analysis on the ONDRI dataset (FS v6.0) with results shown in Figure E3. Similar to CAN-BIND, we can see that a few sites are quite identifiable in ONDRI as well, such as TOH and TWH with 84% and 71% accuracy. Given the chance accuracy in this 5-class experiment is 20%, we can consider the sites LHS and SBH to be identifiable as well. The features contributing most to the automatic site identification model were sulcal depth in rostral anterior cinqulate and precentral gyrus, thickness distributional statistics (such as mean, skew, range, and SEM) in paracentral, inferior temporal, lingual, and precentral gyri, along with precuneus volume (fraction relative to the whole brain). It is interesting to note that these features are a different set compared to those in CAN-BIND, which were mostly based on CNR profiles in different ROIs. Although the site-prediction analyses presented here are based



**Fig. E1.** Confusion matrix from a simple machine learning experiment to identify the site from the morphometric features extracted from FreeSurfer outputs (v6.0) from the CAN-BIND dataset, such as the region-wise statistics on all cortical features (thickness, area, curvature) and CNR values in the FS labels. We notice some sites, esp. UBC and QNS, are quite identifiable. Given the chance accuracy in this 6-class experiment is 16%, sites TGH, MCU, and UCA seem easily identifiable also.

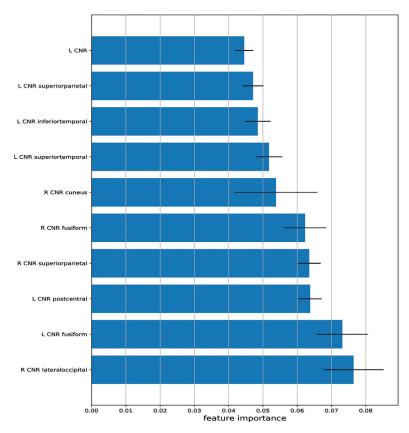


Fig. E2. Feature importance values from the random forest predictive model for site identification on CAN-BIND dataset FS v6.0.

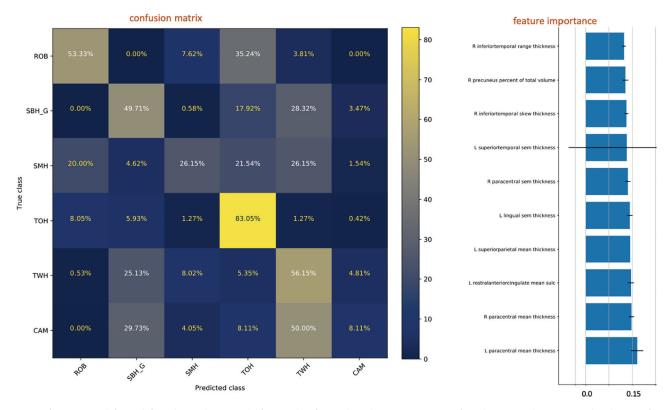


Fig. E3. Confusion matrix (left panel) from the predictive model for site identification based on FS outputs (v6.0) from the ONDRI dataset. We utilize the same features as were extracted in the CAN-BIND dataset. The corresponding feature importance values are shown in the right panel.

on derived features, and error patterns across sites are based on raw parcellations of WM and GM surfaces, the site-prediction results from the two datasets show the importance of being cognizant about site differences while QCing FS parcellations.

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## **Ethics Statement**

All recruitment sites adopted a standardized Participant Agreement with the OBI to enable the transfer of data in accordance with the Governance Policy of OBI as well as the local institutional and/or ethical policies. Written and informed parental consent was obtained for all participants under the age of 16. The patients/participants provided their written informed consent to participate in this study. Written informed consent was obtained from the individual(s) for the publication of any potentially identifiable images or data included in this article.

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