

Event-related fMRI

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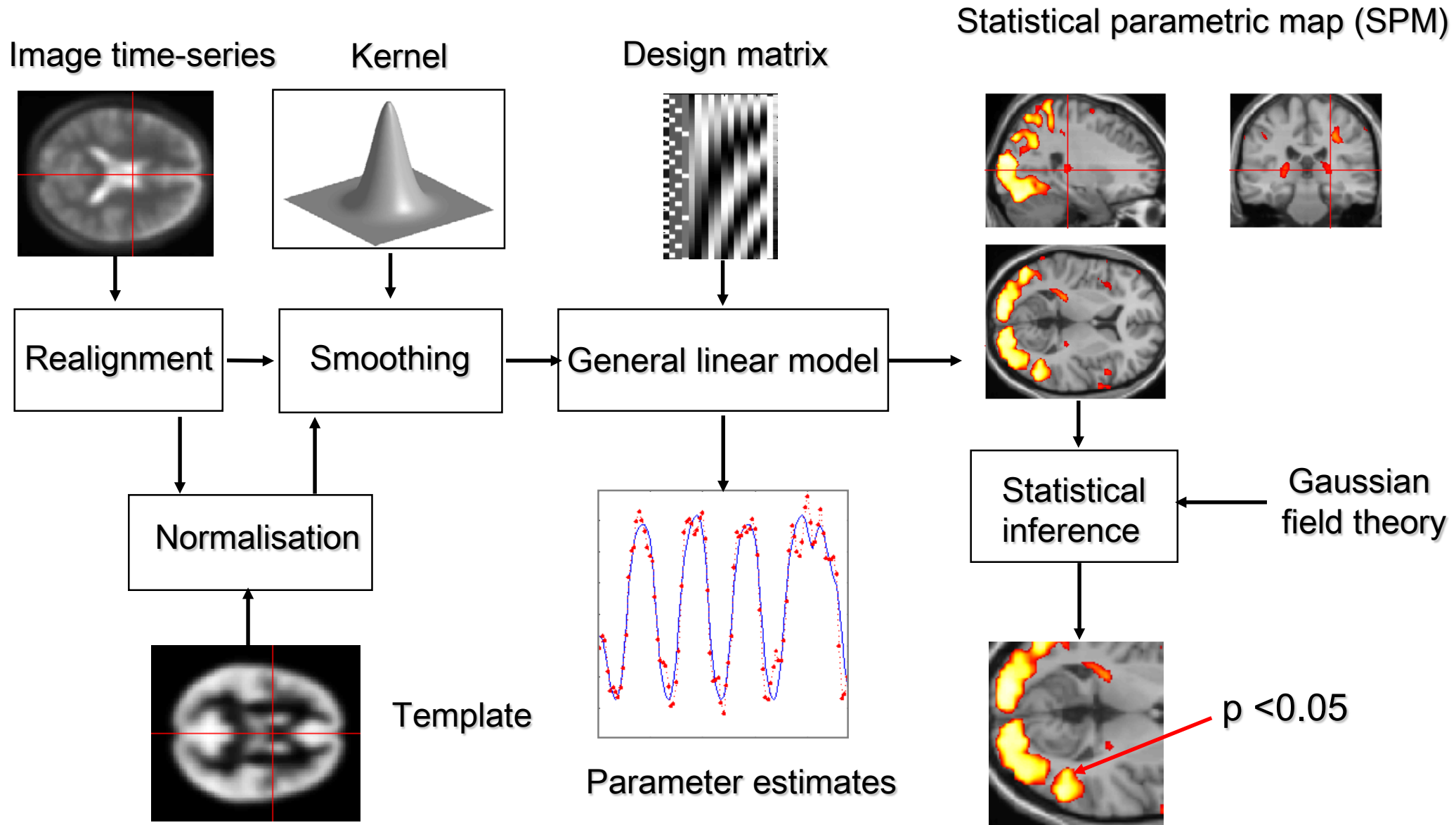
Institute for Biomedical Engineering, University of Zurich & ETH Zurich

With many thanks for slides & images to:

FIL Methods group, Rik Henson and Christian Ruff

Methods & models for fMRI data analysis
23 October 2016

Overview of SPM



Overview

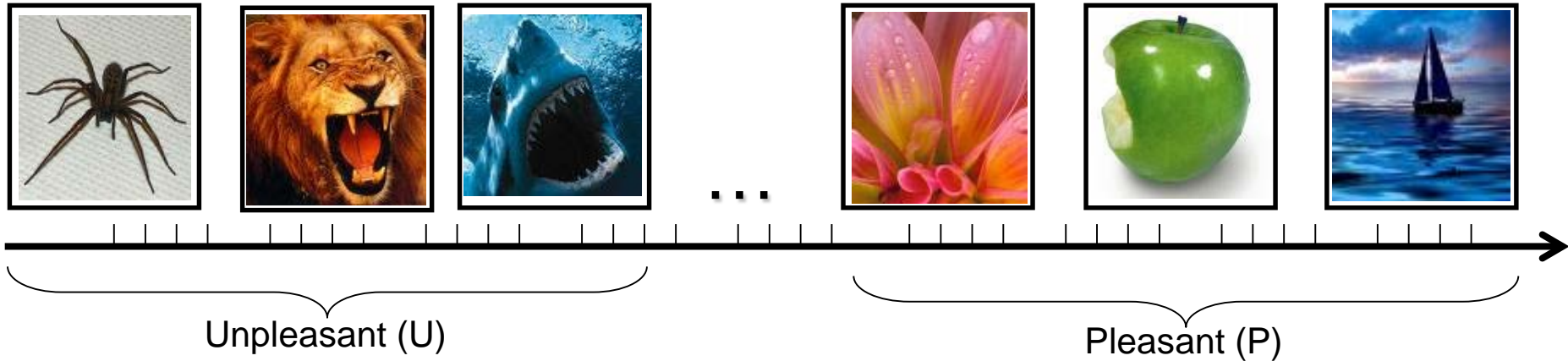
1. Advantages of er-fMRI
2. BOLD impulse response
3. General Linear Model
4. Temporal basis functions
5. Timing issues
6. Design optimisation

Advantages of er-fMRI

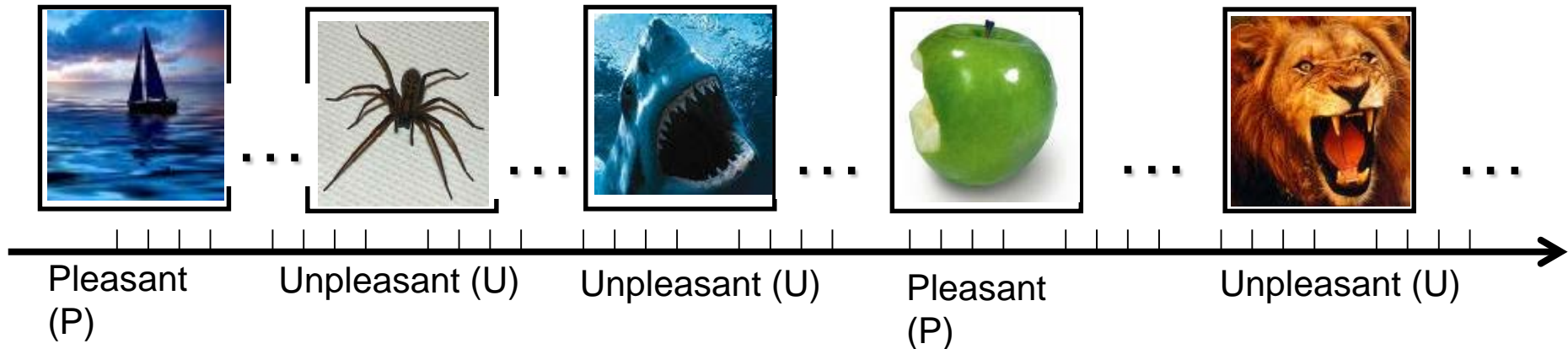
1. Randomised trial order
cf. confounds of blocked designs

er-fMRI: Stimulus randomisation

Blocked designs may trigger expectations and cognitive sets



Intermixed designs can minimise this by stimulus randomisation

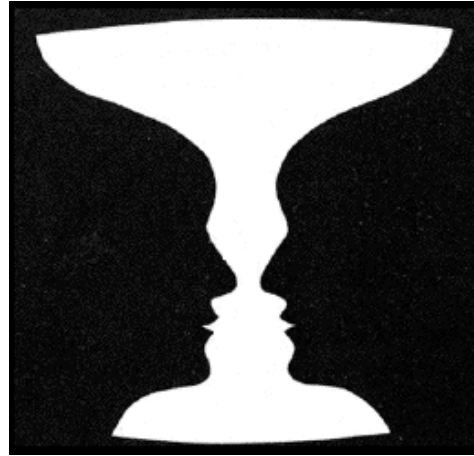


Advantages of er-fMRI

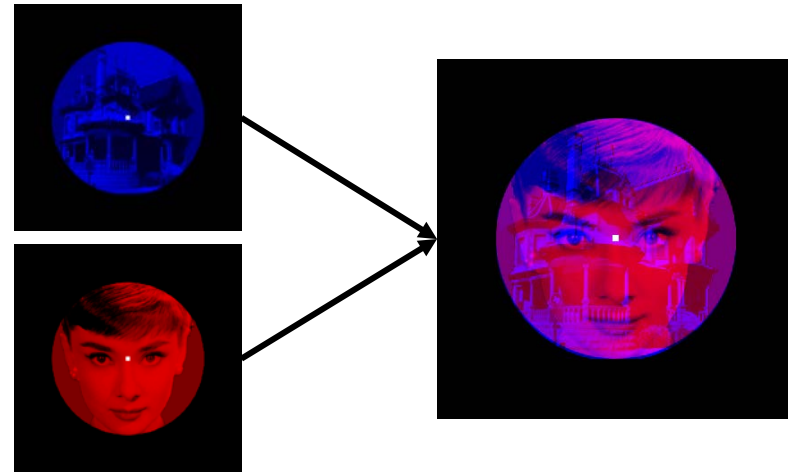
1. Randomised trial order
cf. confounds of blocked designs
2. **Post hoc classification of trials:**
according to performance, or because some events
can only be indicated by the subject (e.g. spontaneous
perceptual changes)

er-fMRI: “on-line” event-definition

Bistable percepts



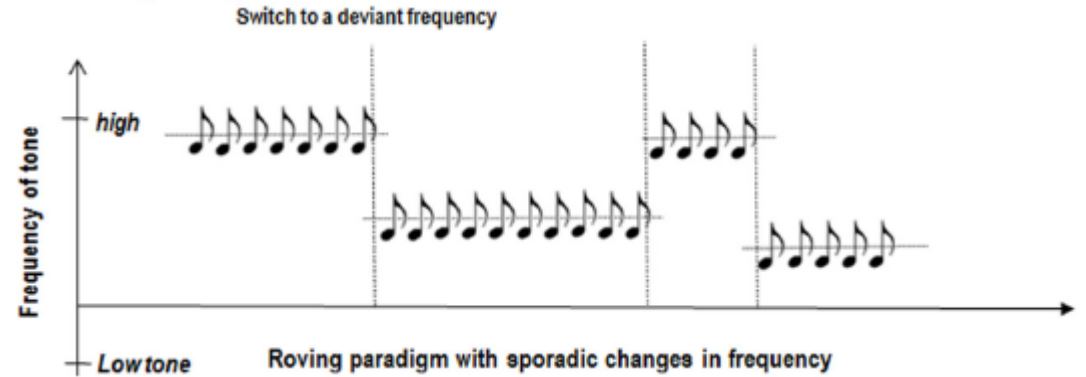
Binocular rivalry



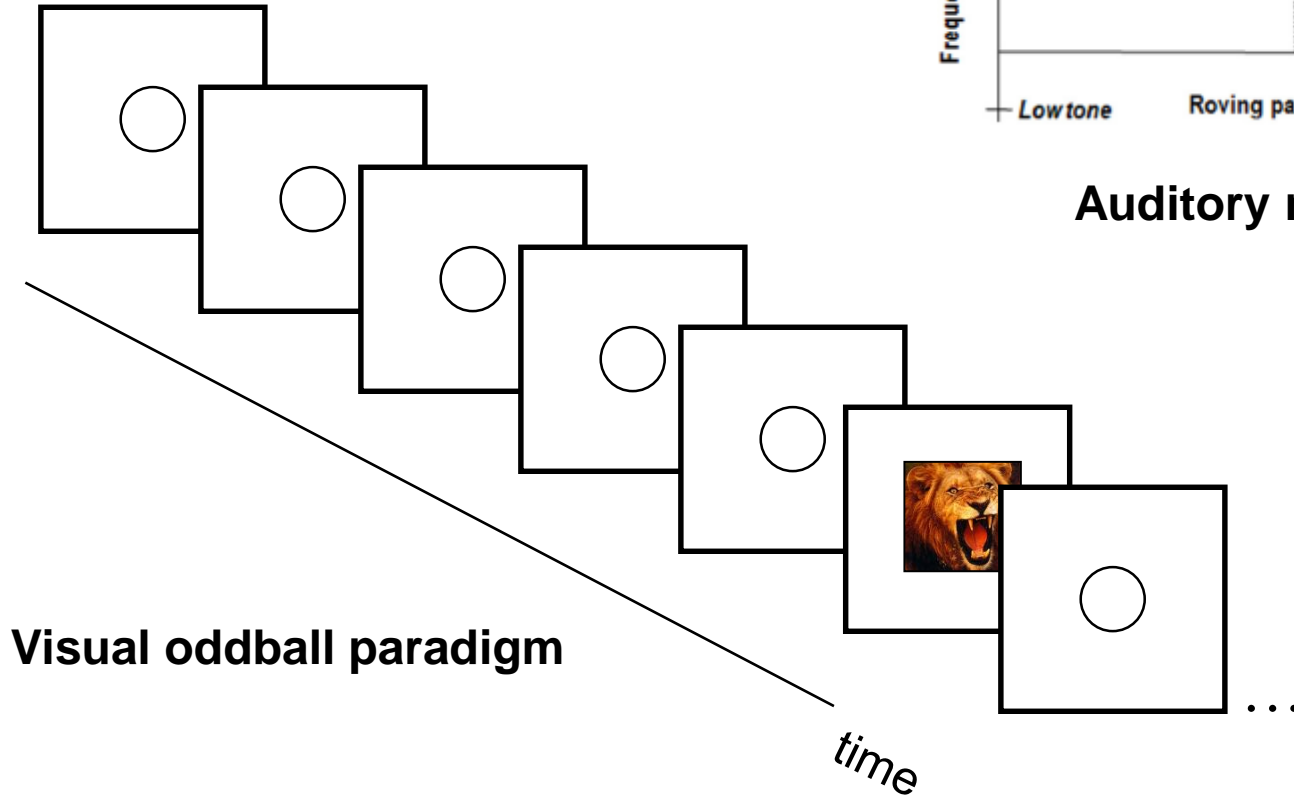
Advantages of er-fMRI

1. Randomised trial order
cf. confounds of blocked designs
2. Post hoc classification of trials:
according to performance, or because some events can only be indicated by the subject (e.g. spontaneous perceptual changes)
3. **Some trials cannot be blocked**
e.g. “oddball” designs

er-fMRI: “oddball” designs



Auditory mismatch negativity (MMN)

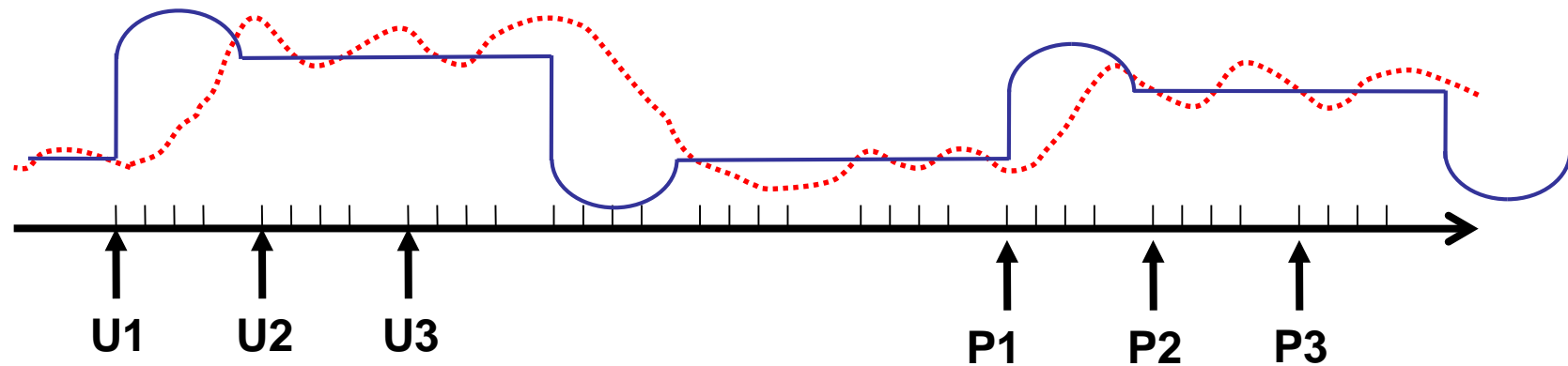


Advantages of er-fMRI

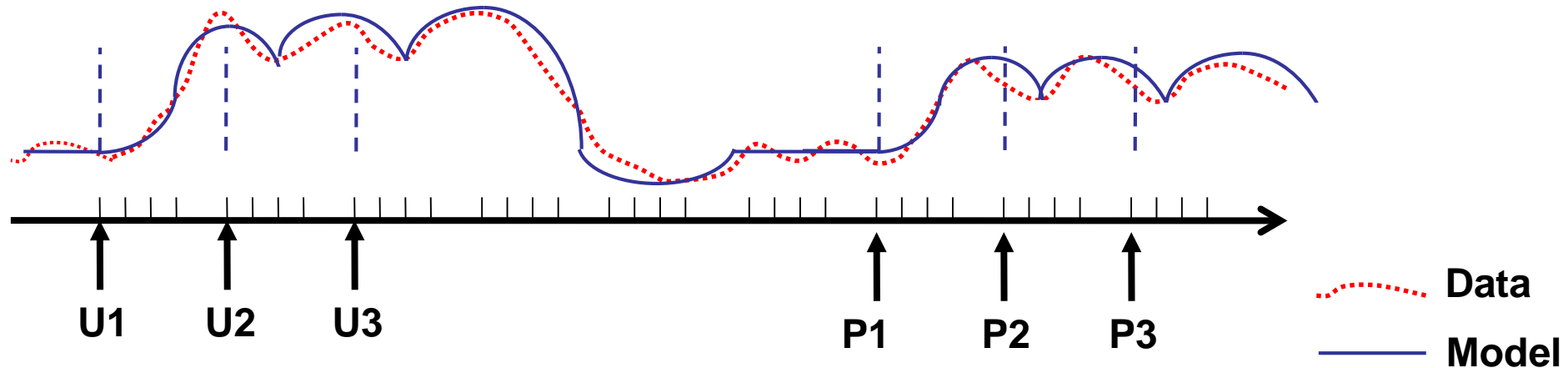
1. Randomised trial order
cf. confounds of blocked designs
2. Post hoc classification of trials:
according to performance, or because some events can only be indicated by the subject (e.g. spontaneous perceptual changes)
3. Some trials cannot be blocked
e.g. “oddball” designs
4. **More accurate models even for blocked designs?**

er-fMRI: “event-based” model of block-designs

“Epoch” model assumes constant neural processes throughout block

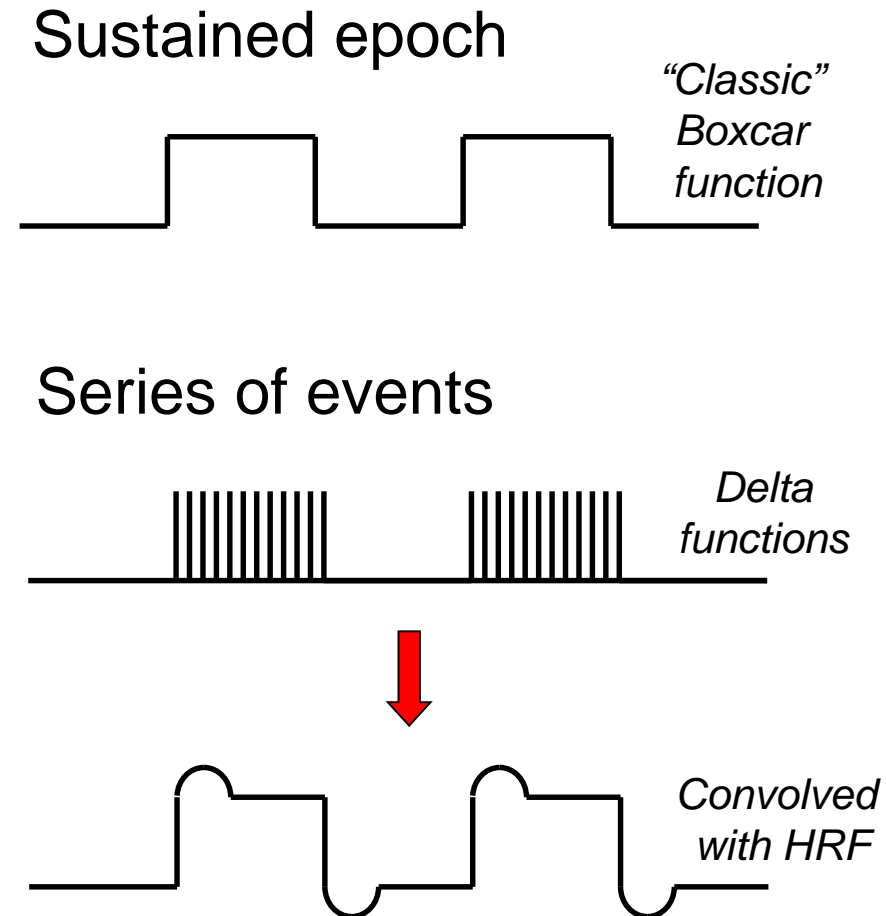


“Event” model may capture response better



Modeling block designs: epochs vs events

- *Models for ER designs are based on events (delta functions)...*
- ... but models for blocked designs can be epoch- or event-related
- Near-identical regressors can be created by 1) sustained epochs, 2) rapid series of events (SOAs < ~3s)
- In SPM, all conditions are specified in terms of their 1) onsets and 2) durations
 - epochs: variable or constant duration, unit amplitude
 - events: zero duration, amplitude: $1/dt$

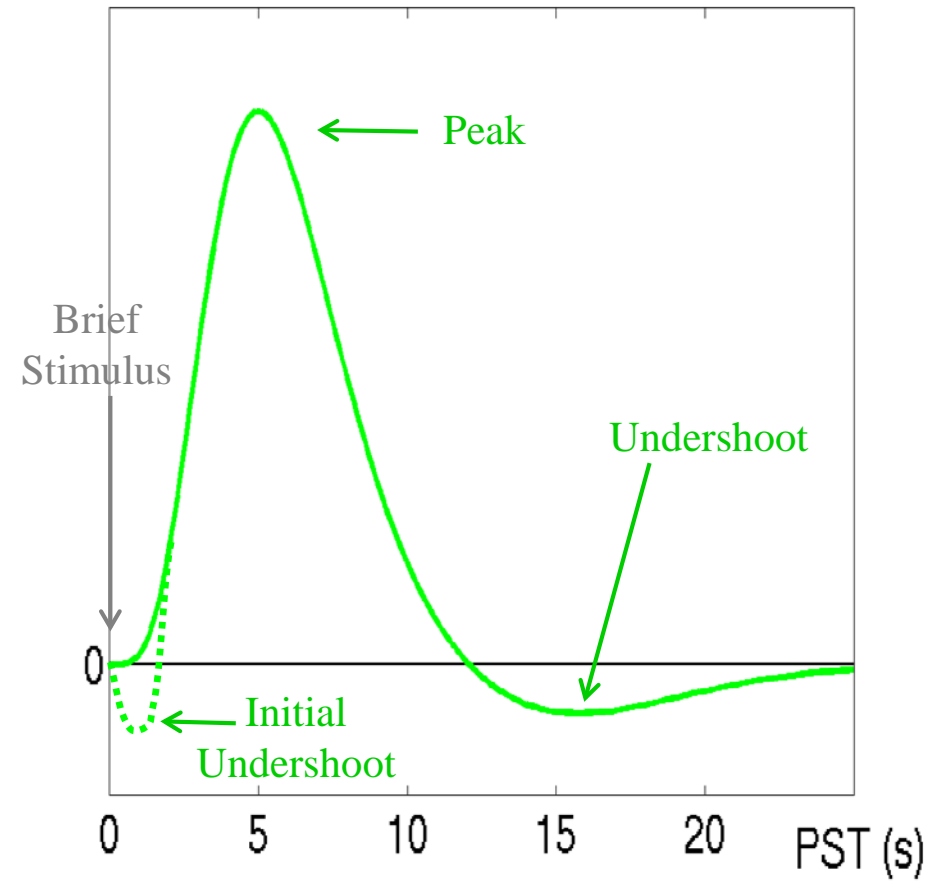


Disadvantages of er-fMRI

1. Less efficient for detecting effects than blocked designs (discussed in detail later).
2. Some psychological processes may be better blocked (e.g. task-switching, attentional instructions).

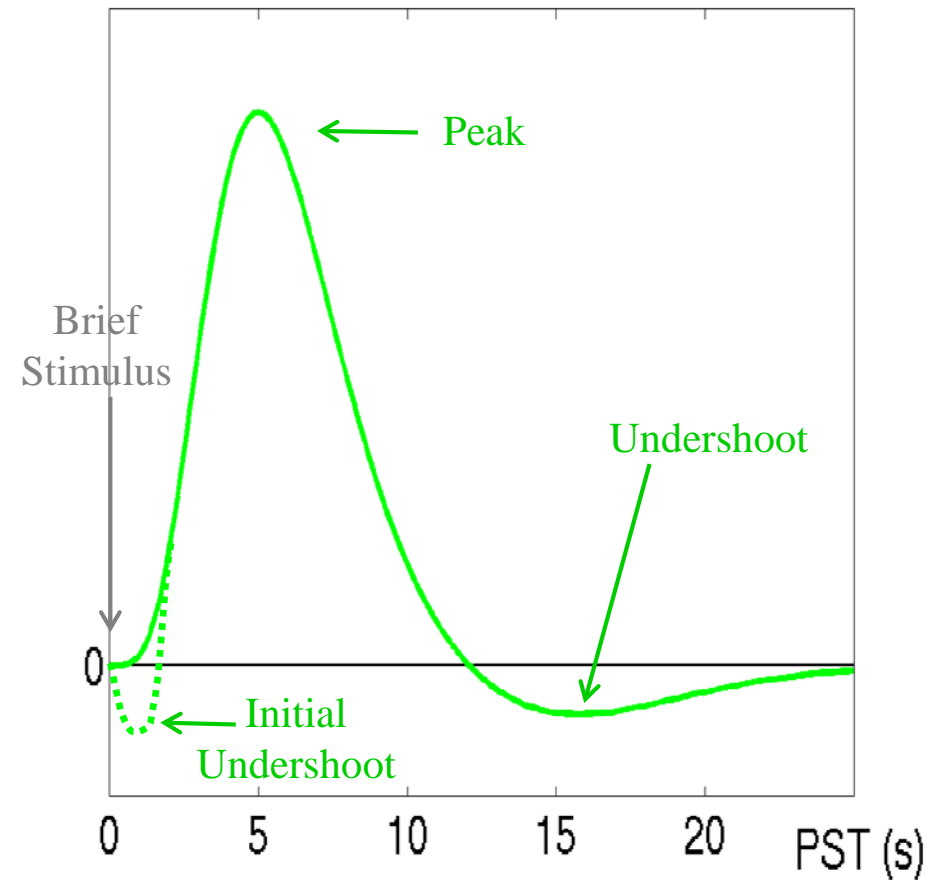
BOLD impulse response

- Function of blood volume and deoxyhemoglobin content (Buxton et al. 1998)
- Peak (max. oxygenation) 4-6s post-stimulus; return to baseline after 20-30s
- initial undershoot sometimes observed (Malonek & Grinvald, 1996)
- Similar across V1, A1, S1...
- ... but differences across other regions (Schacter et al. 1997) and individuals (Aguirre et al. 1998)

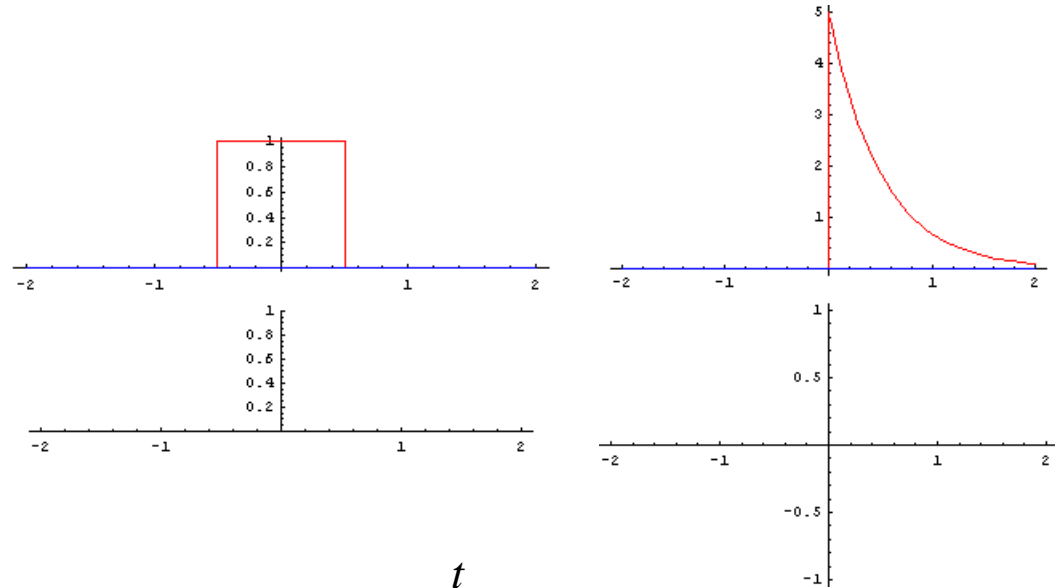
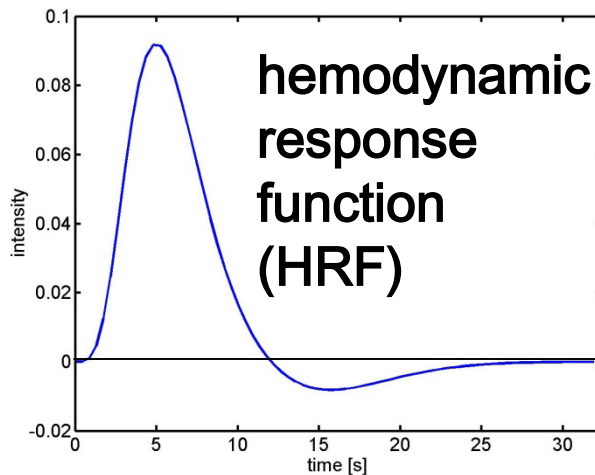


BOLD impulse response

- Early er-fMRI studies used a long Stimulus Onset Asynchrony (SOA) to allow BOLD response to return to baseline.
- However, if the BOLD response is explicitly modelled, overlap between successive responses at short SOAs can be accommodated...
- ... particularly if responses are assumed to superpose linearly.
- Short SOAs can give a more efficient design (see below).



Reminder: BOLD response as output from LTI



$$f \otimes g(t) = \int_0^t f(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau$$

The response of a linear time-invariant (LTI) system is the convolution of the input with the system's response to an impulse (delta function).

expected BOLD response
= input function \otimes impulse response function (HRF)

General Linear (Convolution) Model

For block designs, the exact shape of the convolution kernel (i.e. HRF) does not matter much.

For event-related designs this becomes much more important.

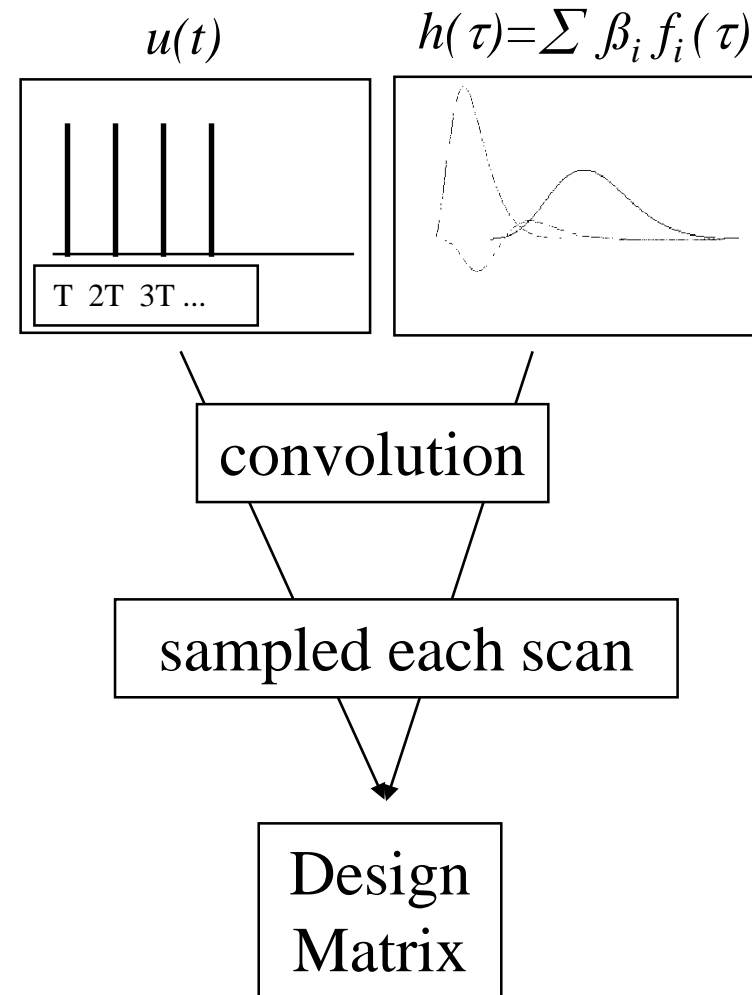
Usually, we use more than a single basis function to model the HRF.

GLM for a single voxel:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{t}) = [\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{t}) \otimes \mathbf{h}(\boldsymbol{\tau})]\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{t})$$

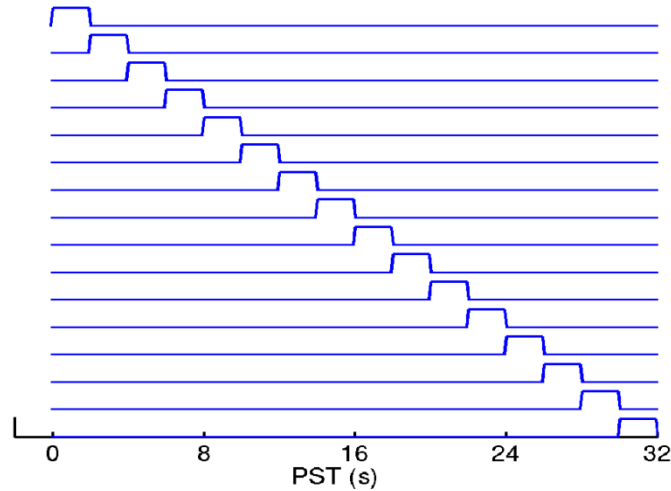
Omitting time index:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{e}$$

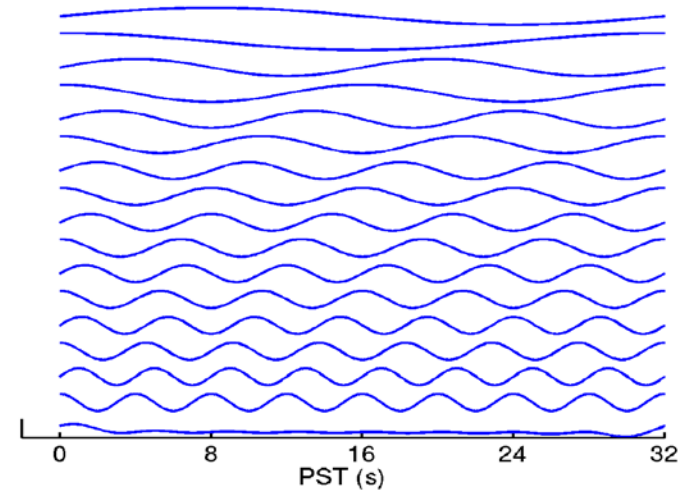


Temporal basis functions

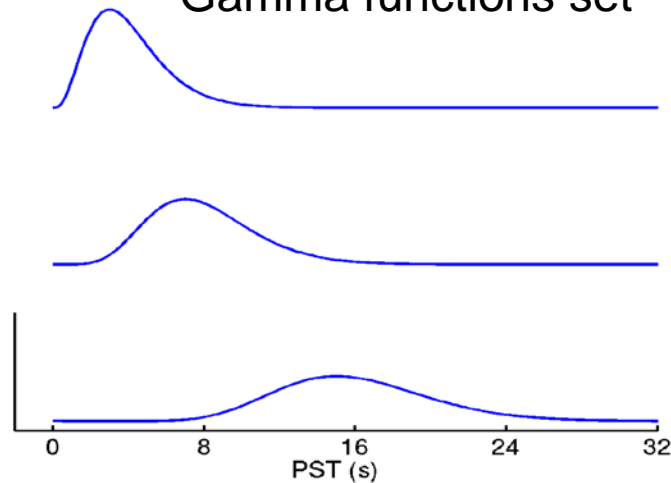
Finite Impulse Response (FIR) model



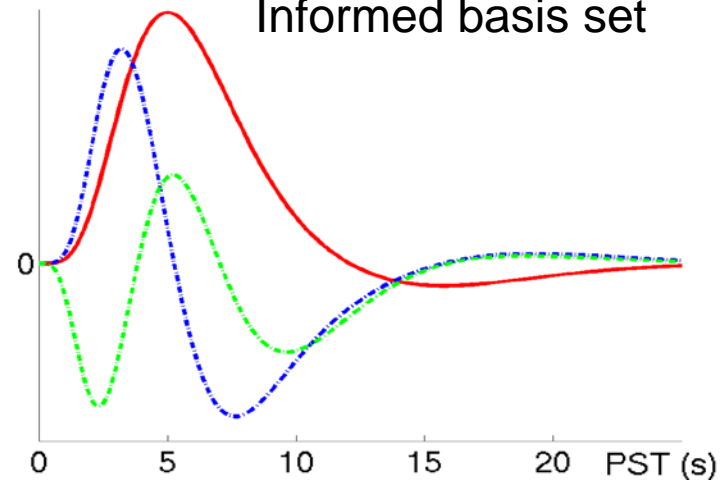
Fourier basis set



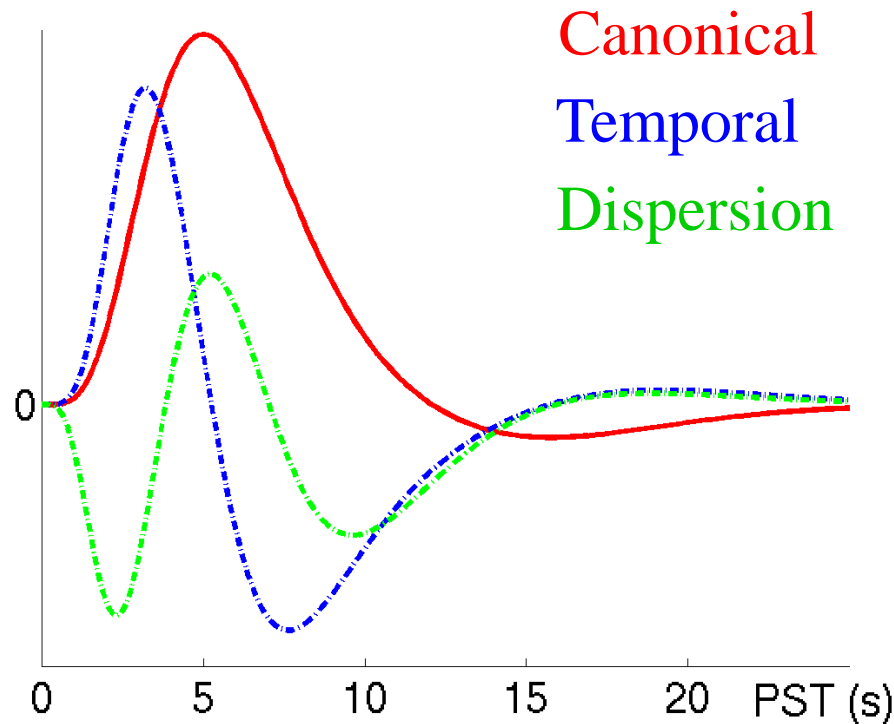
Gamma functions set



Informed basis set



Informed basis set

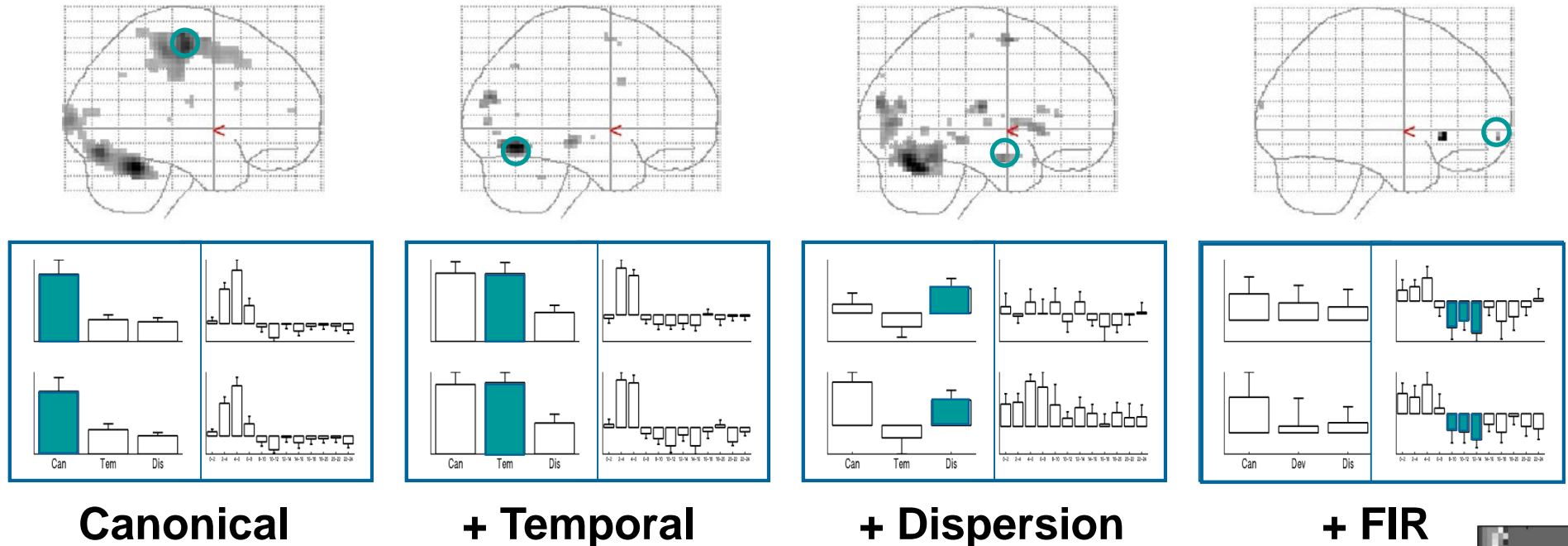


Friston et al. 1998, *NeuroImage*

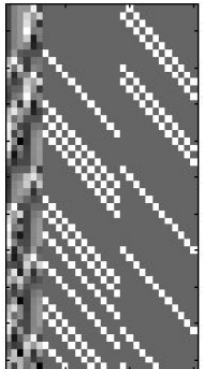
- Canonical HRF:
 - linear combination of 2 gamma functions
 - 7 parameters, see `spm_hrf`
- *plus* multivariate Taylor expansion in:
 - time (*Temporal Derivative*)
 - width (*Dispersion Derivative*; partial derivative of canonical HRF wrt. parameter controlling the width)
- F-tests: testing for responses of any shape.
- T-tests on canonical HRF alone (at 1st level) can be improved by derivatives reducing residual error, and can be interpreted as “amplitude” differences, assuming canonical HRF is a reasonable fit.

Temporal basis sets: Which one?

In this example (rapid motor response to faces, *Henson et al, 2001*)...

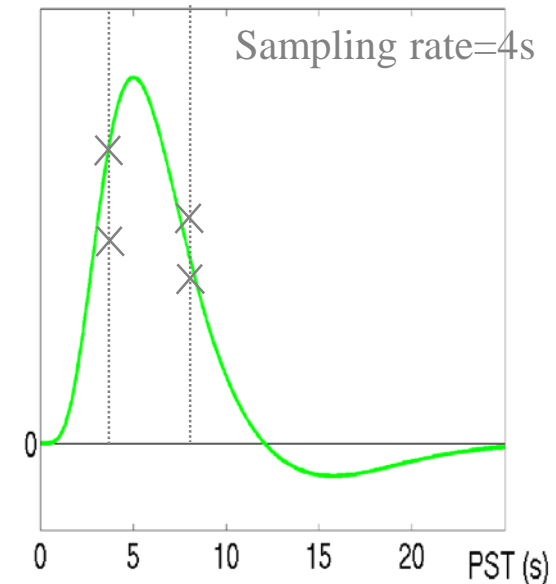
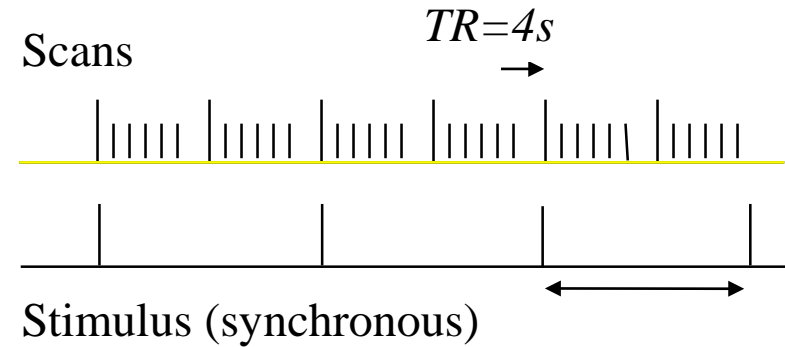


- canonical + temporal + dispersion derivatives appear sufficient
- may not be for more complex trials (e.g. stimulus-delay-response)
- but then such trials better modelled with separate neural components (i.e. activity no longer delta function) (Zarahn, 1999)



Timing Issues : Practical

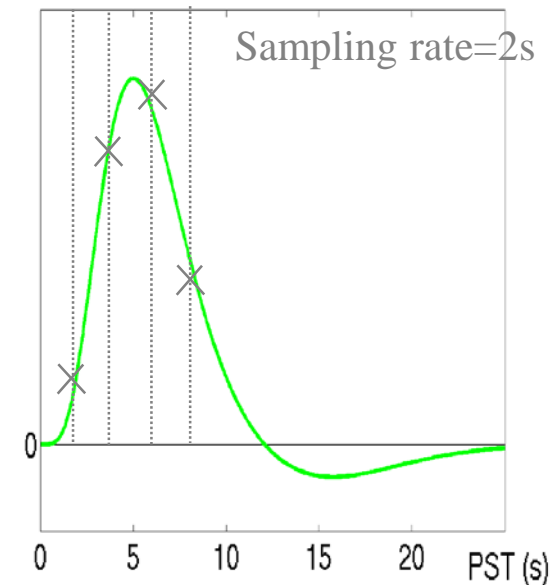
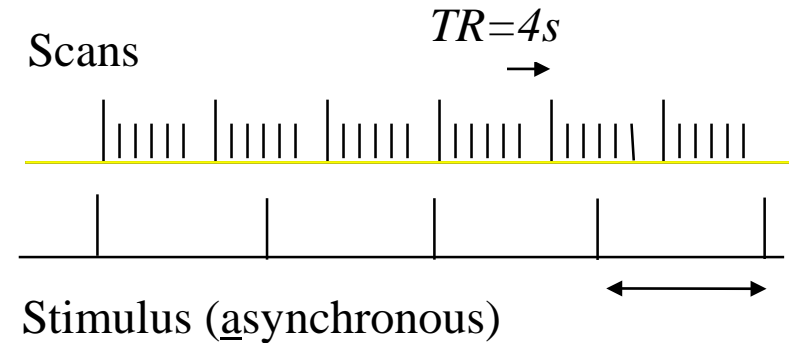
- Assume TR is 4s
- Sampling at [0,4,8,12...] post- stimulus may miss peak signal



SOA = Stimulus onset asynchrony
(= time between onsets of two subsequent stimuli)

Timing Issues : Practical

- Assume TR is 4s
- Sampling at [0,4,8,12...] post- stimulus may miss peak signal
- Higher effective sampling by:
 - 1. Asynchrony, e.g. $SOA = 1.5 \times TR$

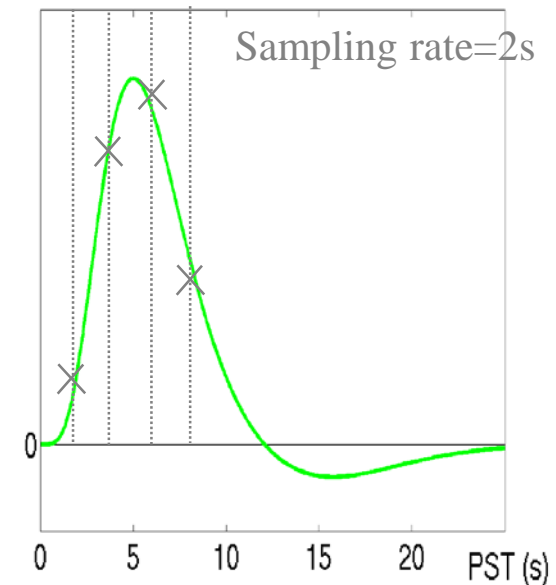
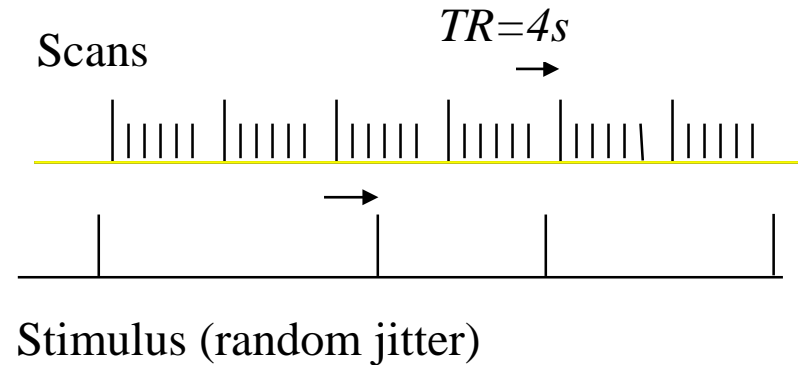


SOA = Stimulus onset asynchrony
(= time between onsets of two subsequent stimuli)

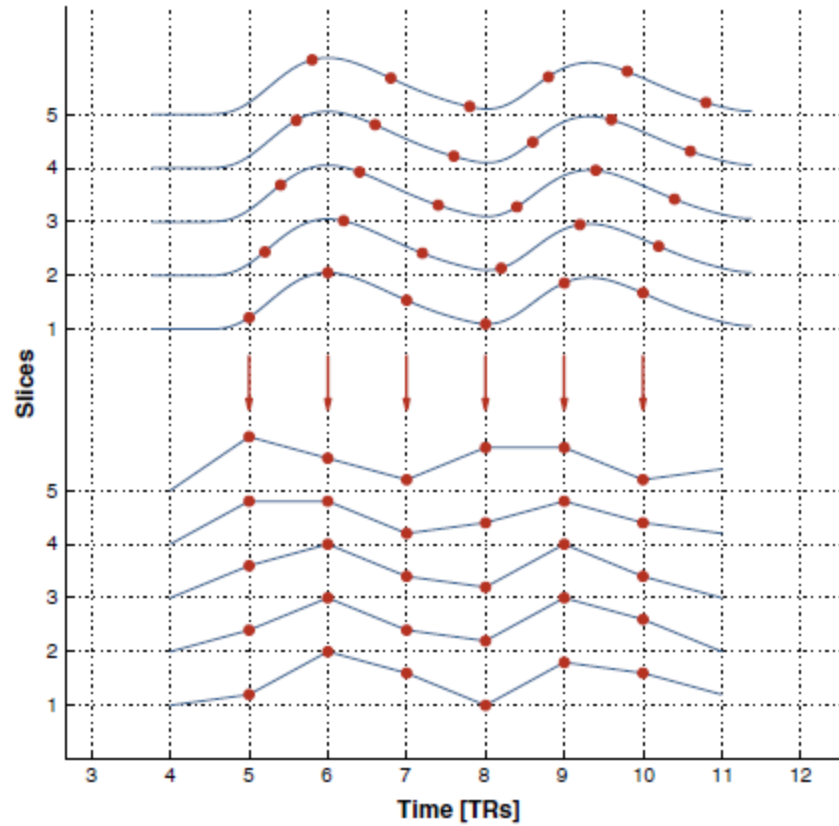
Timing Issues : Practical

- Assume TR is 4s
- Sampling at [0,4,8,12...] post- stimulus may miss peak signal
- Higher effective sampling by:
 - 1. Asynchrony, e.g. $SOA = 1.5 \times TR$
 - 2. Random jitter, e.g. $SOA = (2 \pm 0.5) \times TR$
- Better response characterisation (Miezin et al, 2000)

SOA = Stimulus onset asynchrony
(= time between onsets of two subsequent stimuli)

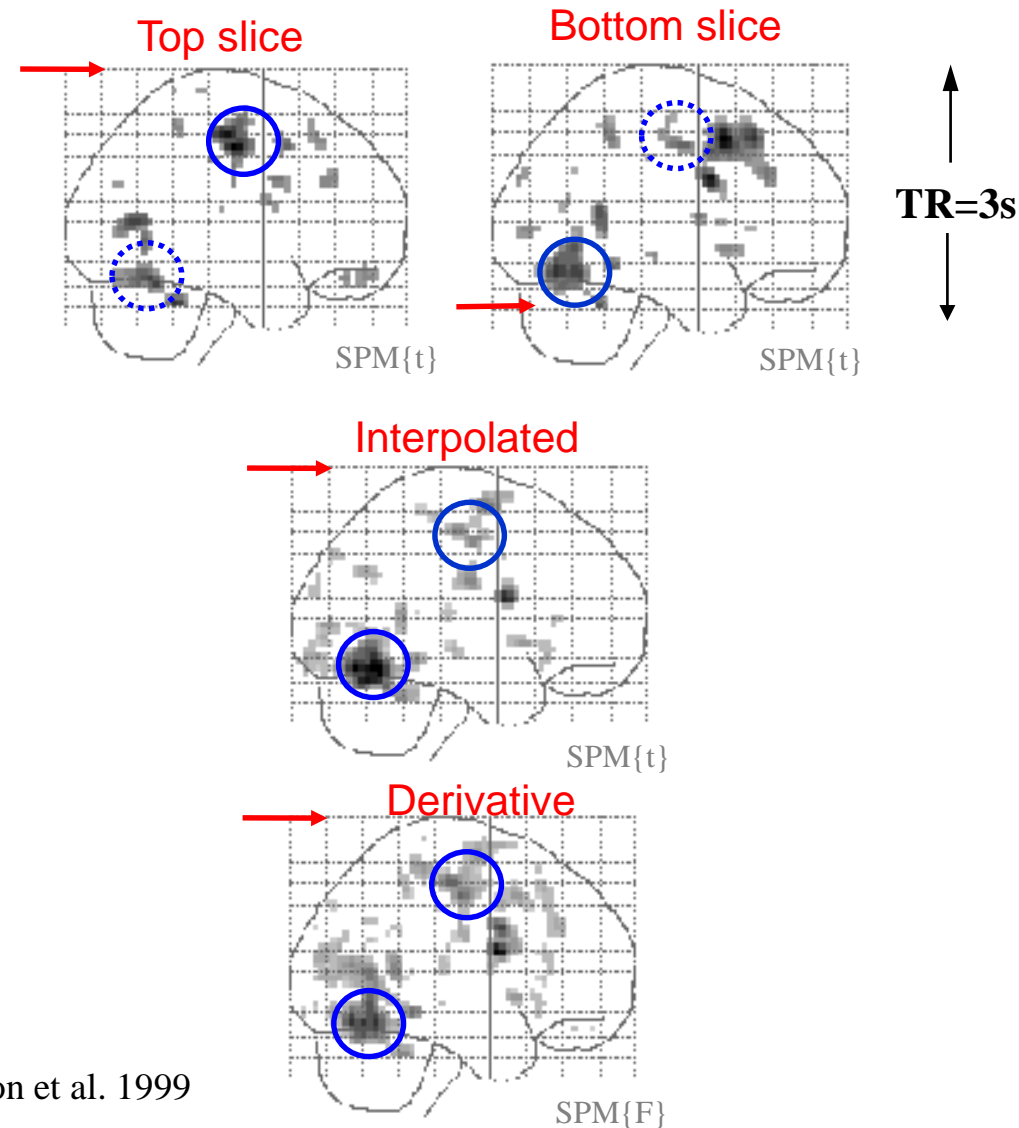


Slice-timing



Slice-timing

- Slices acquired at different times, yet model is the same for all slices
 \Rightarrow *different results (using canonical HRF) for different reference slices*
- Solutions:
 1. Temporal interpolation of data
... but may be problematic for longer TRs
 2. More general basis set (e.g. with temporal derivatives)
... but more complicated design matrix



Design efficiency

- The aim is to minimize the standard error of a t -contrast (i.e. the denominator of a t -statistic).

$$\text{var}(c^T \hat{\beta}) = \hat{\sigma}^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c$$

$$T = \frac{c^T \hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\text{var}(c^T \hat{\beta})}}$$

- This is equivalent to maximizing the efficiency ε :

$$\varepsilon(\hat{\sigma}^2, c, X) = (\hat{\sigma}^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c)^{-1}$$

Noise variance

Design variance

- If we assume that the noise variance is independent of the specific design:

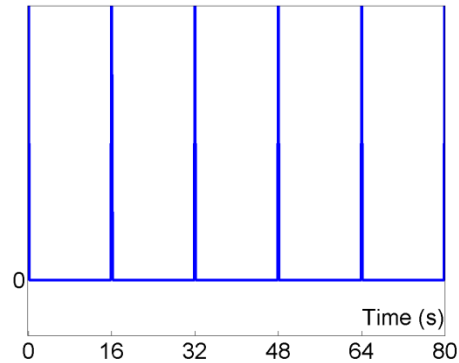
$$\varepsilon(c, X) = (c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c)^{-1}$$

NB: efficiency depends on design matrix and the chosen contrast !

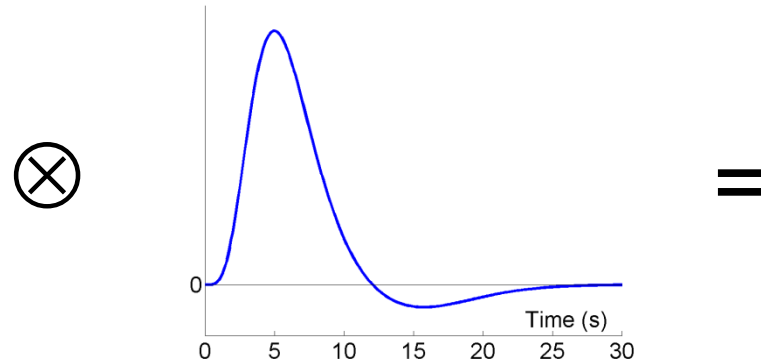
- This is a relative measure: all we can say is that one design is more efficient than another (for a given contrast).

Fixed SOA = 16s

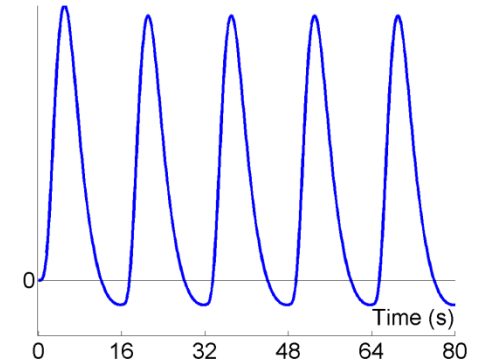
Stimulus (“Neural”)



HRF



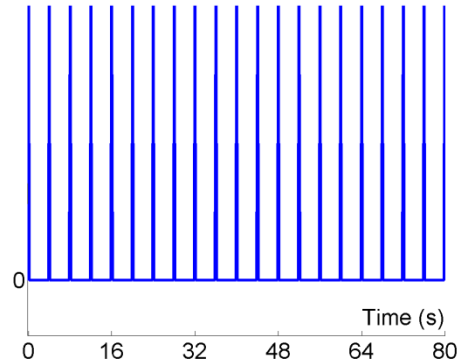
Predicted Data



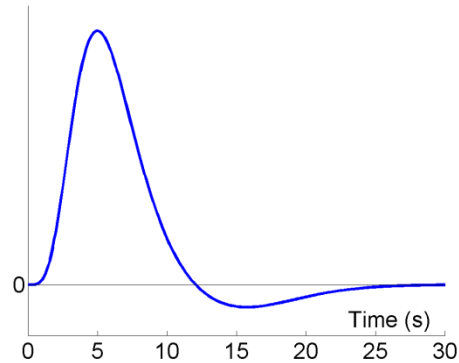
Not particularly efficient...

Fixed SOA = 4s

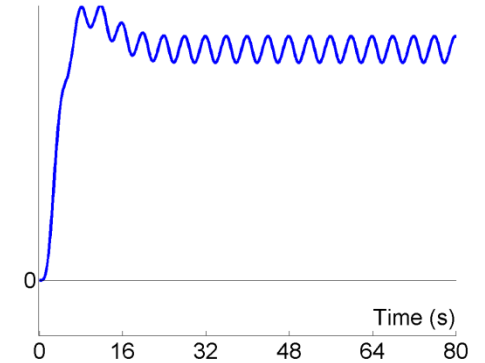
Stimulus (“Neural”)



HRF



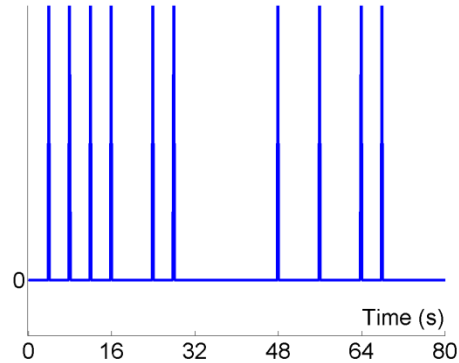
Predicted Data



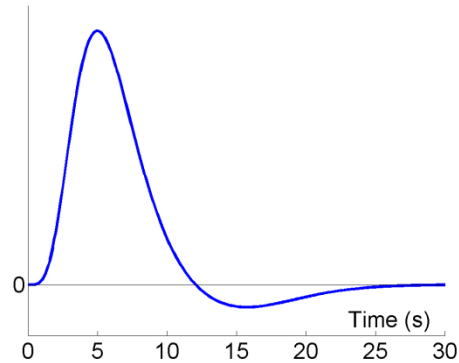
Very inefficient...

Randomised, $\text{SOA}_{\min} = 4\text{s}$

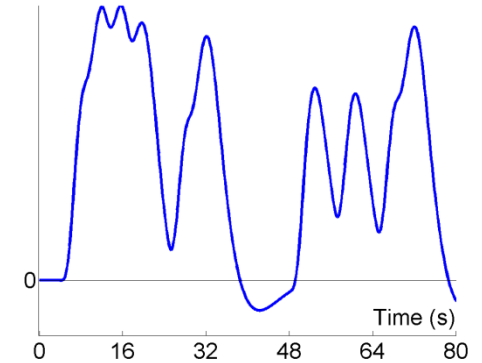
Stimulus (“Neural”)



HRF



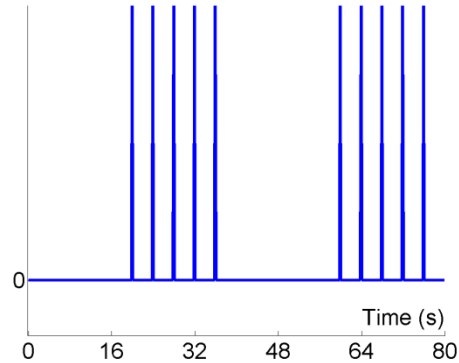
Predicted Data



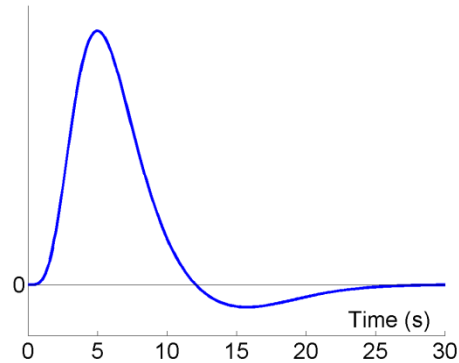
More efficient ...

Blocked, $\text{SOA}_{\min} = 4\text{s}$

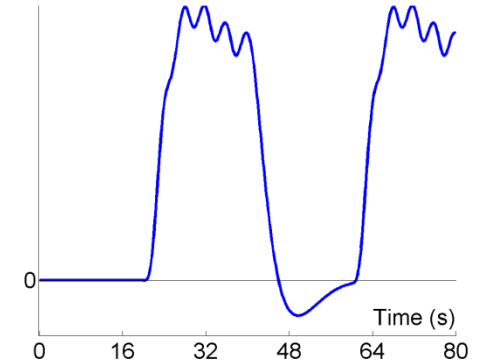
Stimulus (“Neural”)



HRF



Predicted Data

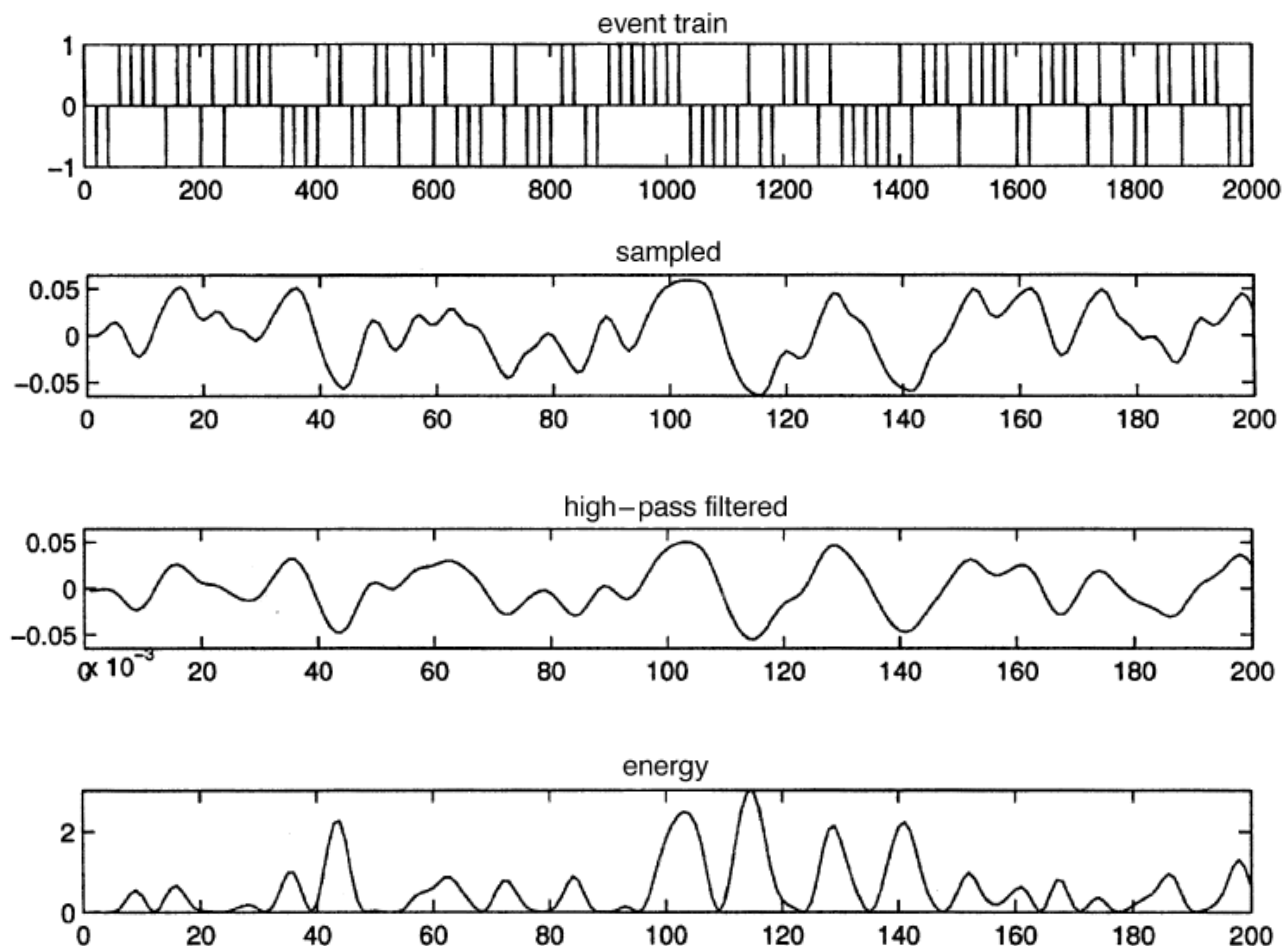
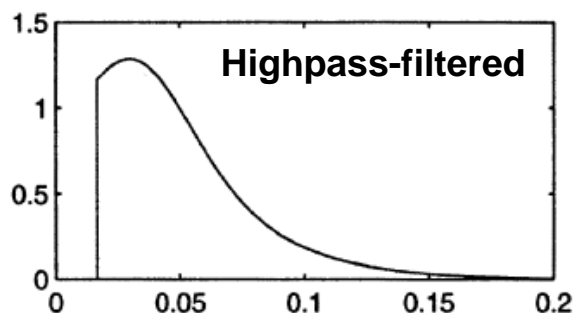
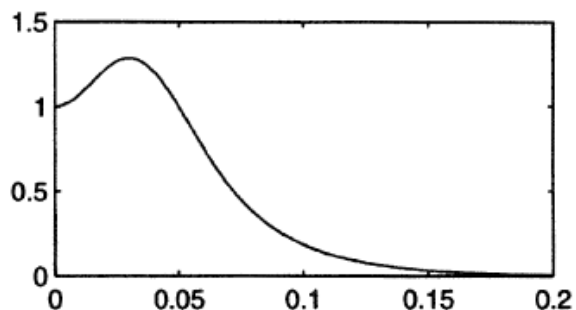


Even more efficient...

Another perspective on efficiency

Hemodynamic transfer function

(based on canonical HRF):
neural activity (Hz) \rightarrow BOLD



efficiency = bandpassed signal energy

Fourier series

Sine wave

$$y(t) = A \sin(2\pi ft + \varphi) = A \sin(\omega t + \varphi)$$

where:

- A = the *amplitude*, the peak deviation of the function from zero.
- f = the *ordinary frequency*, the *number* of oscillations (cycles) that occur each second of time.
- $\omega = 2\pi f$, the *angular frequency*, the rate of change of the function argument in units of *radians* per second
- φ = the *phase*, specifies (in radians) where in its cycle the oscillation is at $t = 0$.

Power = squared amplitude (often represented in logs)

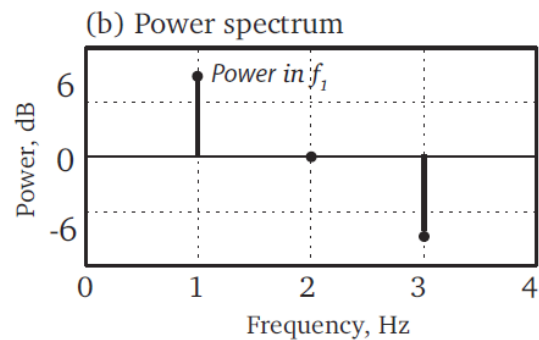
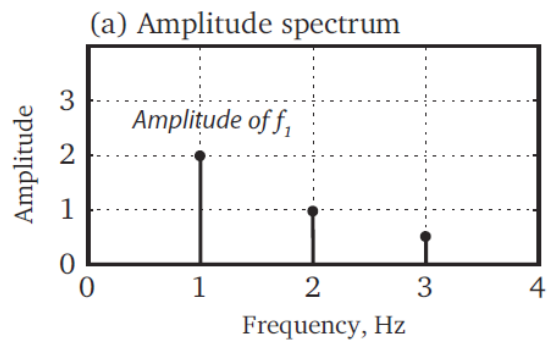
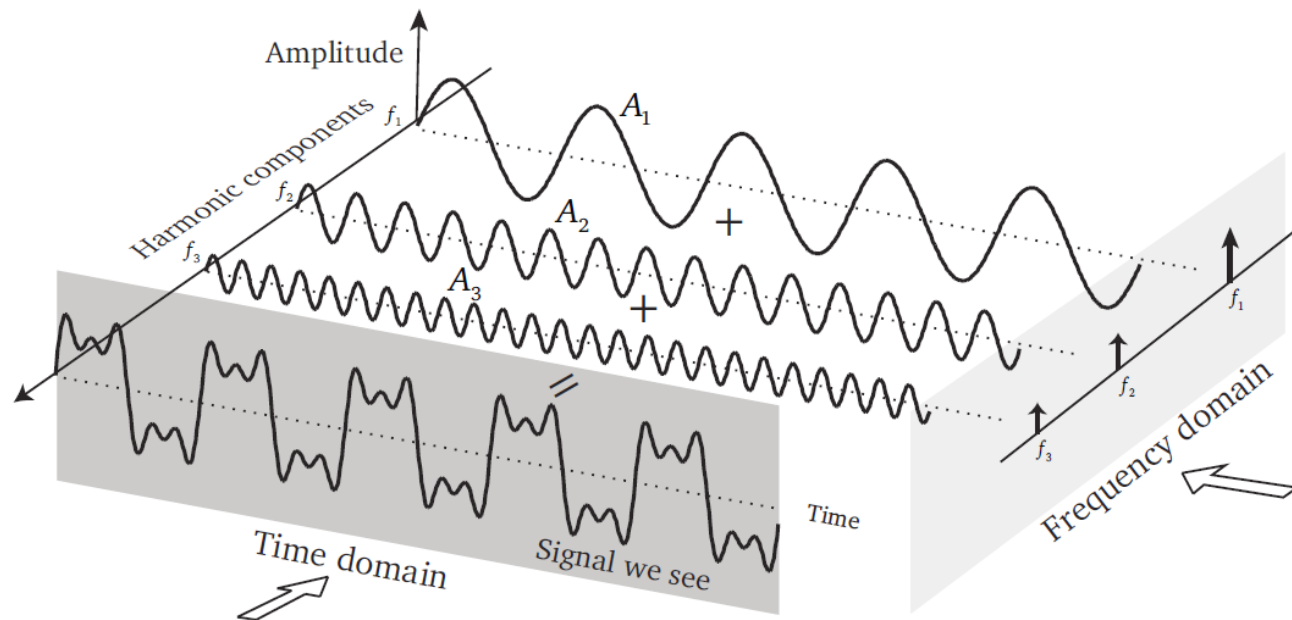
Signal energy = integral of power over time

Fourier series

= infinite sum of sines and cosines of different frequencies

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \cos(2\pi f_k t) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k \sin(2\pi f_k t)$$

Fourier series



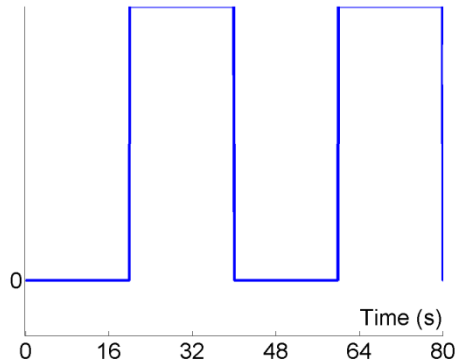
Fourier transform

- simply speaking, the Fourier transform F provides the Fourier series coefficients for a signal, i.e., it decomposes a function of time (a signal) into the frequencies it consists of
- linear operator
- convolution in time domain = multiplication in frequency domain:
 $F(f * g) = F(f)F(g)$

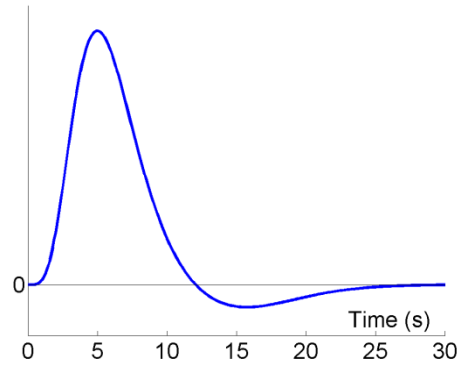


Blocked, epoch = 20s

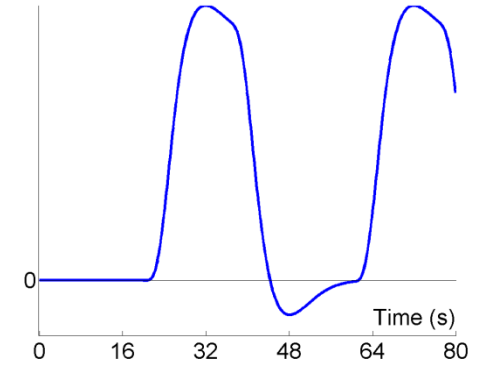
Stimulus ("Neural")



HRF

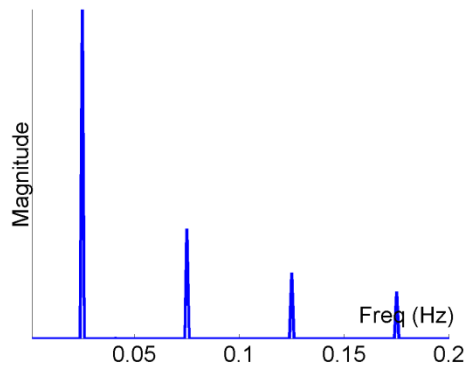


Predicted Data



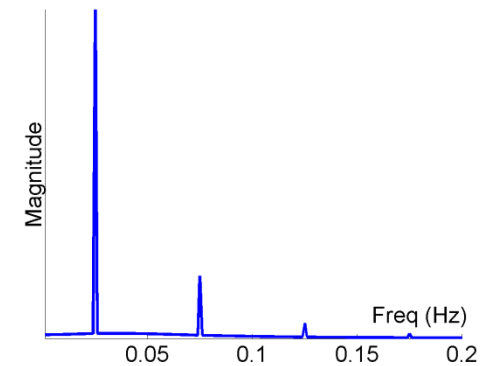
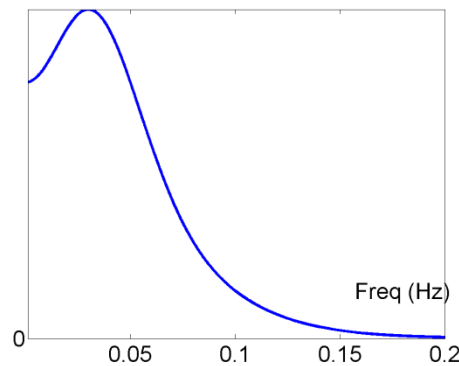
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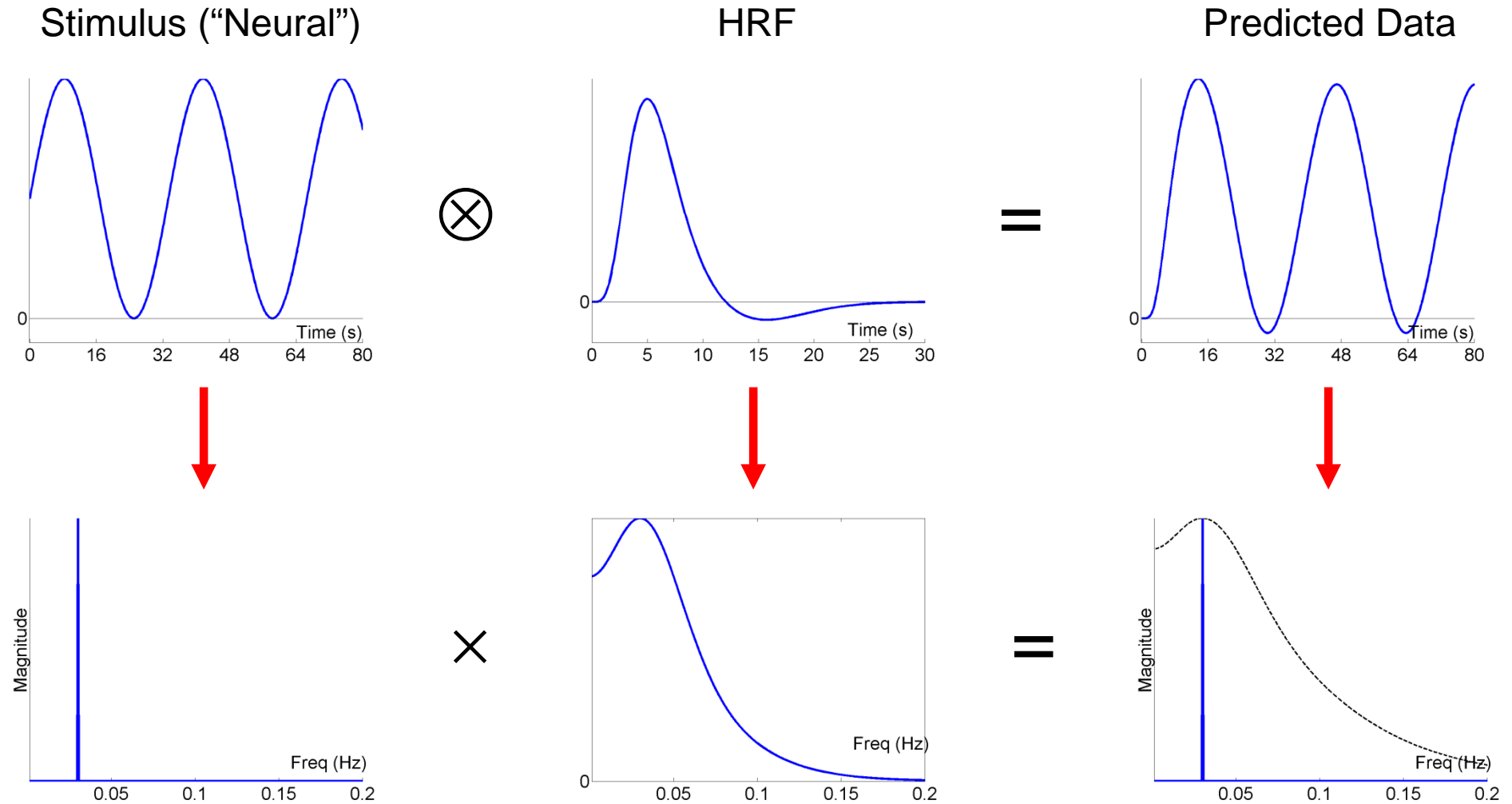
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Blocked-epoch (with short SOA)

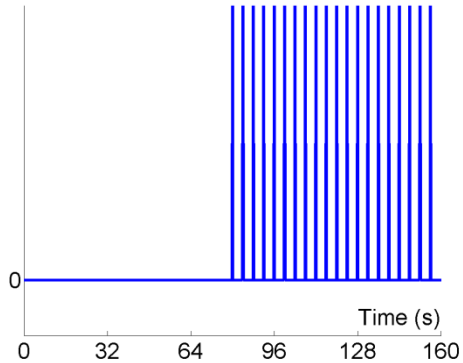
Sinusoidal modulation, $f = 1/33\text{s}$



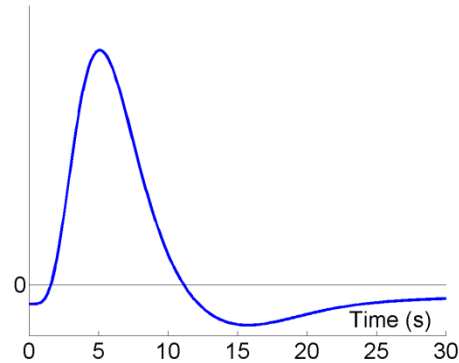
The most efficient design of all!

Blocked (80s), $SOA_{min}=4s$, highpass filter = $1/120s$

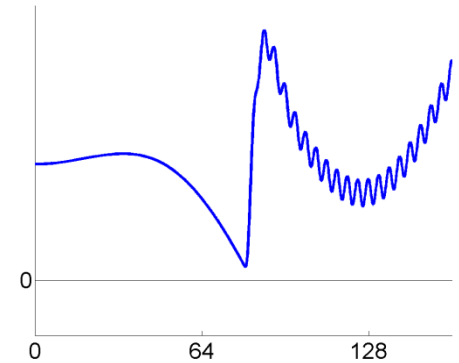
Stimulus ("Neural")



HRF

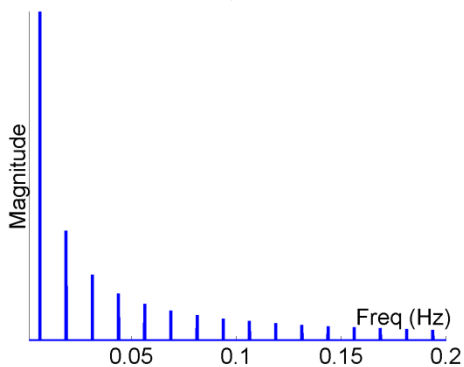


Predicted data
(incl. HP filtering!)



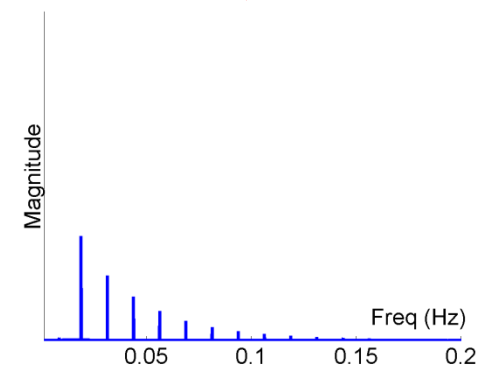
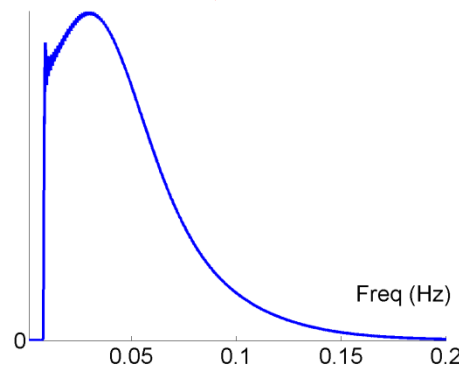
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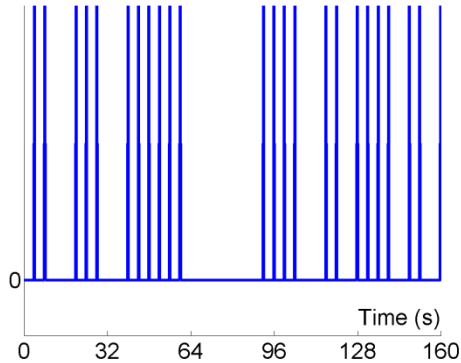
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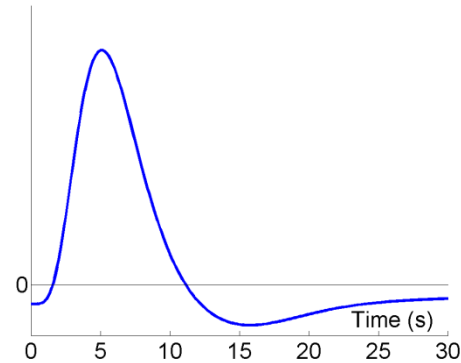
Don't use long (>60s) blocks!

Randomised, $\text{SOA}_{\min}=4\text{s}$, highpass filter = $1/120\text{s}$

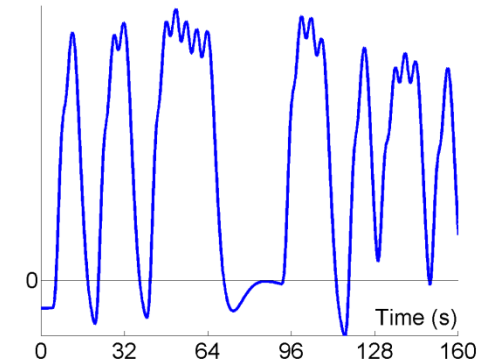
Stimulus (“Neural”)



HRF

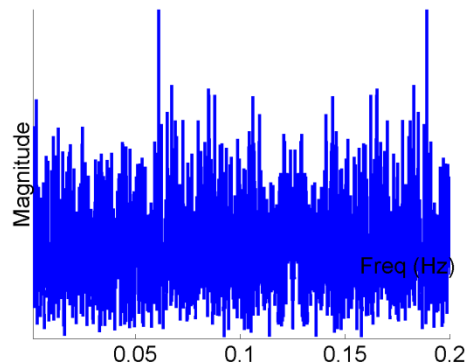


Predicted Data



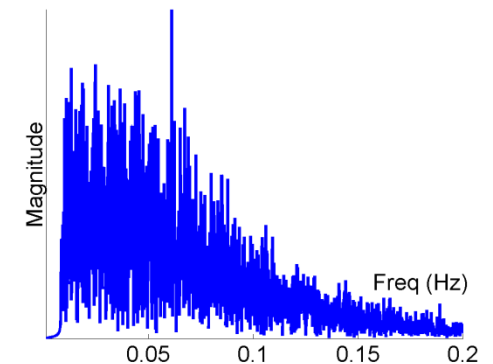
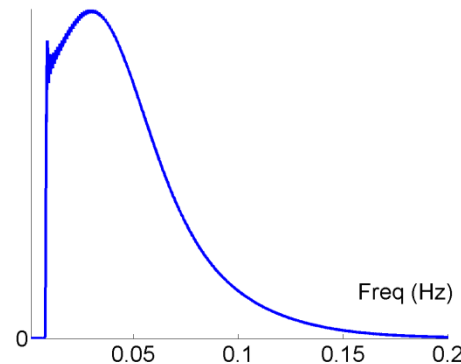
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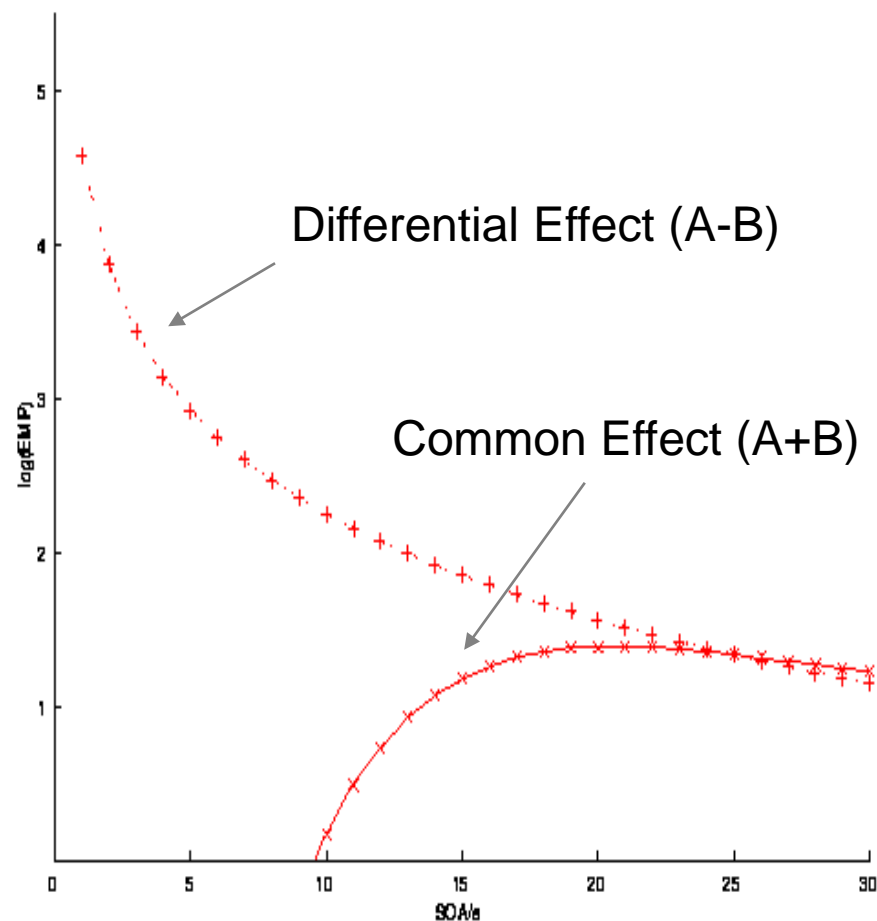
Randomised design spreads power over frequencies.

Efficiency: Multiple event types

- Design parametrised by:
 SOA_{min} Minimum SOA
 $p_i(\mathbf{h})$ Probability of event-type i given history \mathbf{h} of last m events
- With n event-types $p_i(\mathbf{h})$ is a $n^m \times n$ *Transition Matrix*
- Example: Randomised AB

	A	B
A	0.5	0.5
B	0.5	0.5

=> **ABBBABAABABAAA...**



4s smoothing; 1/60s highpass filtering

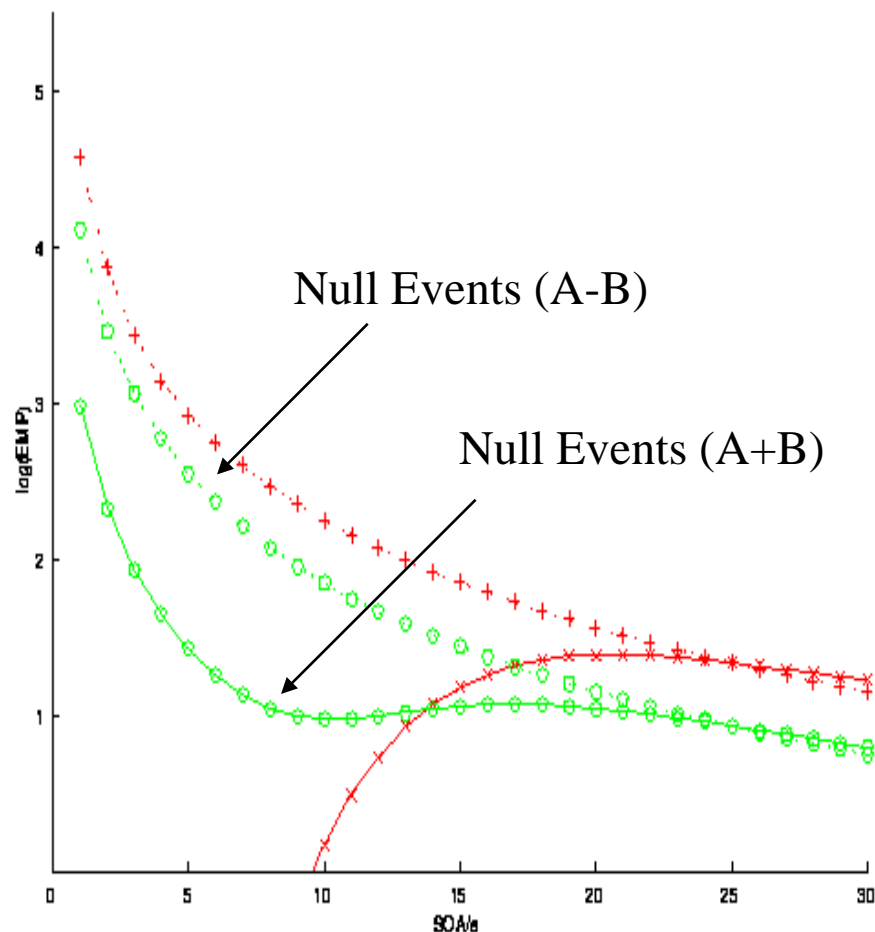
Efficiency: Multiple event types

- Example: Null events

	A	B
A	0.33	0.33
B	0.33	0.33

=> **AB-BAA--B---ABB...**

- Efficient for differential **and** main effects at short SOA
- Equivalent to stochastic SOA (null event corresponds to a third unmodelled event-type)



4s smoothing; 1/60s highpass filtering

Efficiency – main conclusions

- Optimal design for one contrast may not be optimal for another.
- Generally, blocked designs with short SOAs are the most efficient design.
- With randomised designs, optimal SOA for differential effect (A-B) is minimal SOA (assuming no saturation), whereas optimal SOA for common effect (A+B) is 16-20s.
- Inclusion of null events gives good efficiency for both common and differential effects at short SOAs.

Thank you