Classical (frequentist) inference

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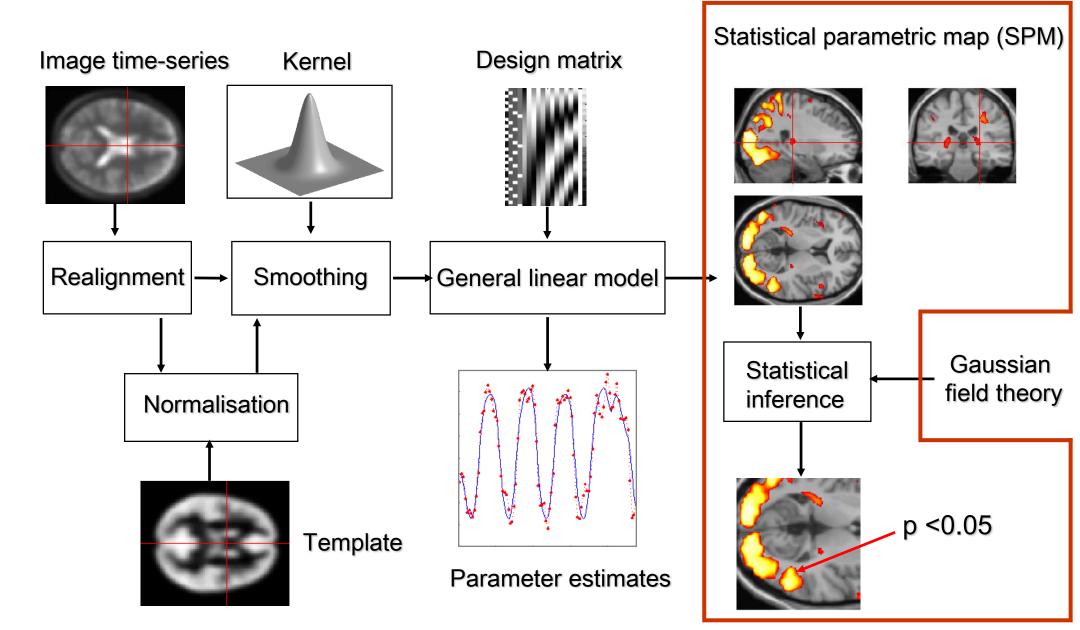


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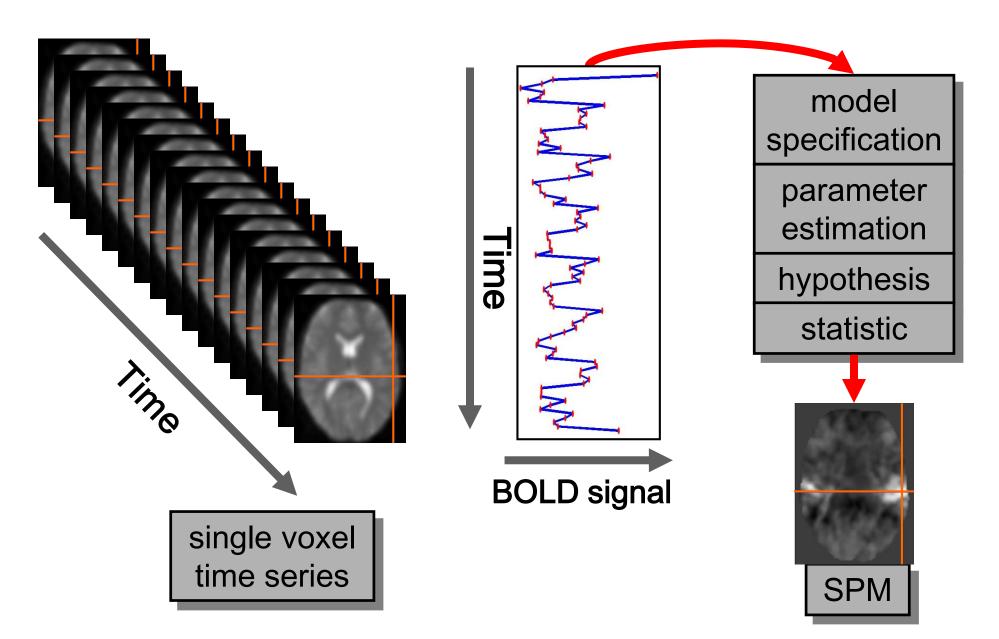
Methods & models for fMRI data analysis 15 October 2019

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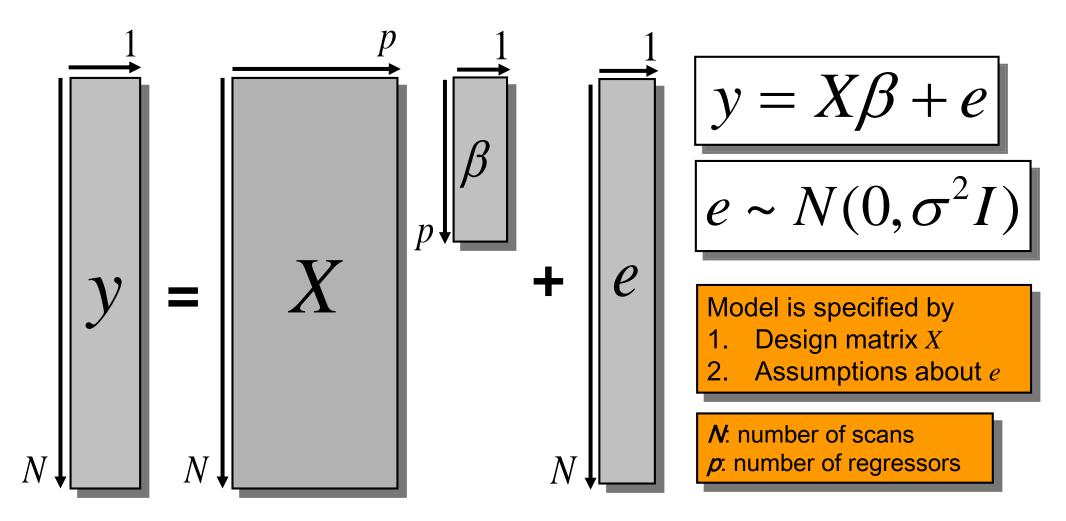
Overview of SPM



Voxel-wise time series analysis

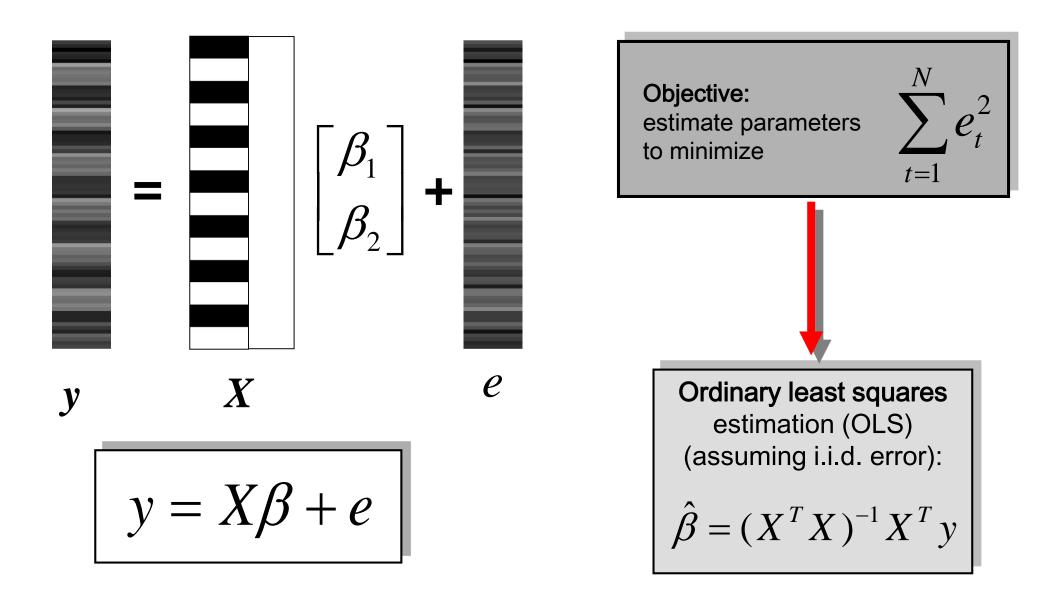


Mass-univariate analysis: voxel-wise GLM



The design matrix embodies all available knowledge about experimentally controlled factors and potential confounds.

Ordinary least squares (OLS) parameter estimation



Terminology

- A **statistic** is the result of applying a mathematical function to a **sample** (set of data).
- (More formally, a **statistic** is a function of a sample where the function itself is independent of the sample's distribution. The term is used both for the function and for the value of the function on a given sample.)
- A statistic is distinct from an unknown statistical **parameter**, which is a population property and can only be estimated approximately from a sample.
- A statistic used to estimate a parameter is called an **estimator**. For example, the sample mean is a statistic and an estimator for the population mean, which is a parameter.

Hypothesis testing

To test an hypothesis, we construct a "test statistic".

• "Null hypothesis" $H_0 =$ "there is no effect" $\Rightarrow c^T \beta = 0$

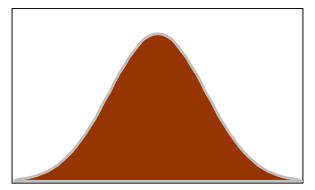
This is what we want to disprove.

 \Rightarrow The "alternative hypothesis" H₁ represents the outcome of interest.

The test statistic T

The test statistic summarises the evidence for H_0 .

 \Rightarrow We need to know the distribution of T under the null hypothesis.



Null Distribution of T

Hypothesis testing

• Type I Error α :

Acceptable false positive rate α . Threshold *u* controls the false positive rate

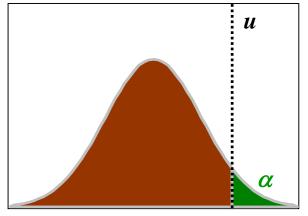
$$\alpha = p(T > u \mid H_0)$$

• Observation of test statistic t, a realisation of T:

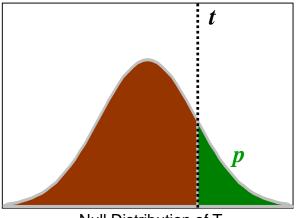
A *p*-value summarises evidence against H_0 . This is the probability of observing t, or a more extreme value, under the null hypothesis:

$$p(T \ge t \mid H_0)$$

The conclusion about the hypothesis:
 We reject H₀ in favour of H₁ if t > u



Null Distribution of T



Null Distribution of T

Types of error		Actual condition	
		H ₀ true	H ₀ false
Test result	Reject H _o	False positive (FP) Type I error α	True positive (TP)
	Failure to reject H ₀	True negative (TN)	False negative (FN) Type II error β

specificity: 1-α = TN / (TN + FP) = proportion of actual negatives which are correctly identified sensitivity (power): $1-\beta$

= TP / (TP + FN)
= proportion of actual positives which are correctly identified

One cannot accept the null hypothesis (one can only fail to reject it)



Absence of evidence is not evidence of absence!

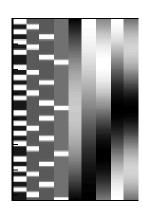
If we do not reject H_0 , then all can we say is that there is not enough evidence in the data to reject H_0 . This does not mean that we can accept H_0 .

What does this mean for neuroimaging results based on classical statistics?

A failure to find an "activation" in a particular area does not mean we can conclude that this area is not involved in the process of interest.

Contrasts

- We are usually not interested in the whole β vector.
- A contrast c^Tβ selects a specific effect of interest:
 ⇒ a contrast vector c is a vector of length p
 ⇒ c^Tβ is a linear combination of regression coefficients β



 $c^{\mathsf{T}} = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots]$ $c^{\mathsf{T}}\beta = \mathbf{1}\beta_{1} + \mathbf{0}\beta_{2} + \mathbf{0}\beta_{3} + \mathbf{0}\beta_{4} + \mathbf{0}\beta_{5} + \dots$ $c^{\mathsf{T}} = [0 \ -1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots]$ $c^{\mathsf{T}}\beta = \mathbf{0}\beta_{1} + \mathbf{-1}\beta_{2} + \mathbf{1}\beta_{3} + \mathbf{0}\beta_{4} + \mathbf{0}\beta_{5} + \dots$

• Under i.i.d assumptions:

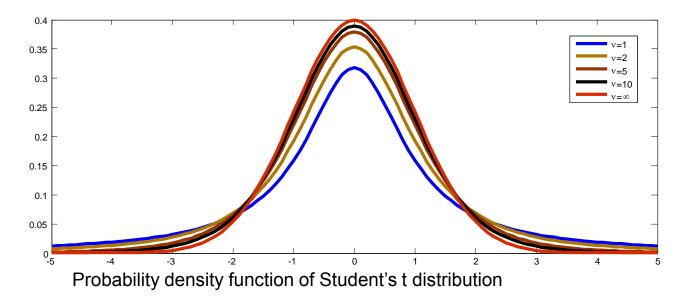
$$c^T \hat{\beta} \sim N(c^T \beta, \sigma^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c)$$

NB: the precision of our estimates depends on design matrix and the chosen contrast !

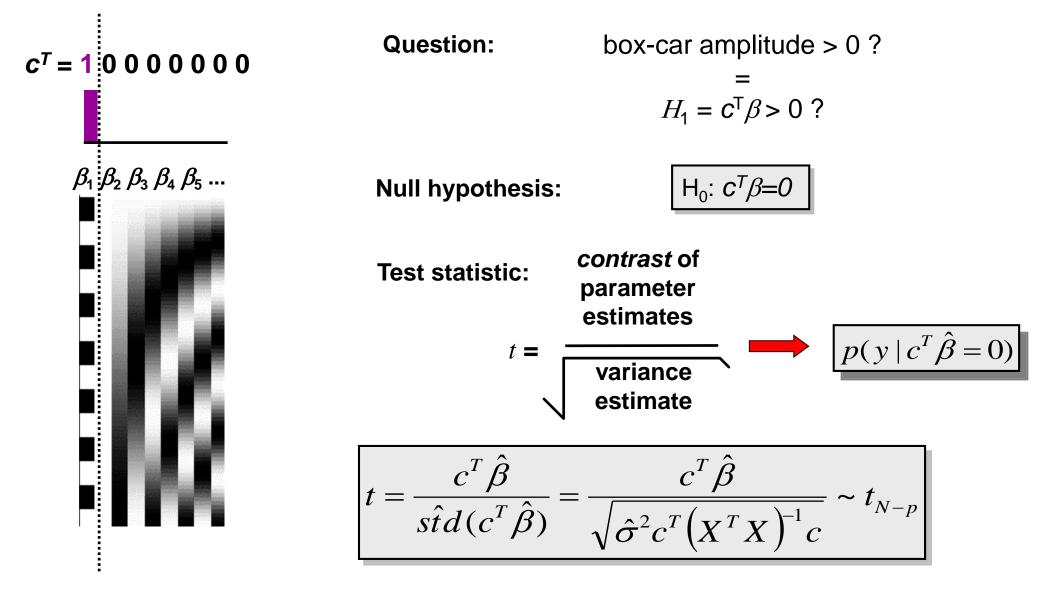
Student's t-distribution

- first described by William Sealy Gosset, a statistician at the Guinness brewery at Dublin
- t-statistic is a signal-to-noise measure: t = effect / standard deviation
- t-distribution is an approximation to the normal distribution for small samples
- t-contrasts are simply linear combinations of the betas
 - ⇒ the t-statistic does not depend on the scaling of the regressors or on the scaling of the contrast
- Unilateral test in SPM:

$$H_0: c^T \beta = 0$$
 vs. $H_1: c^T \beta > 0$

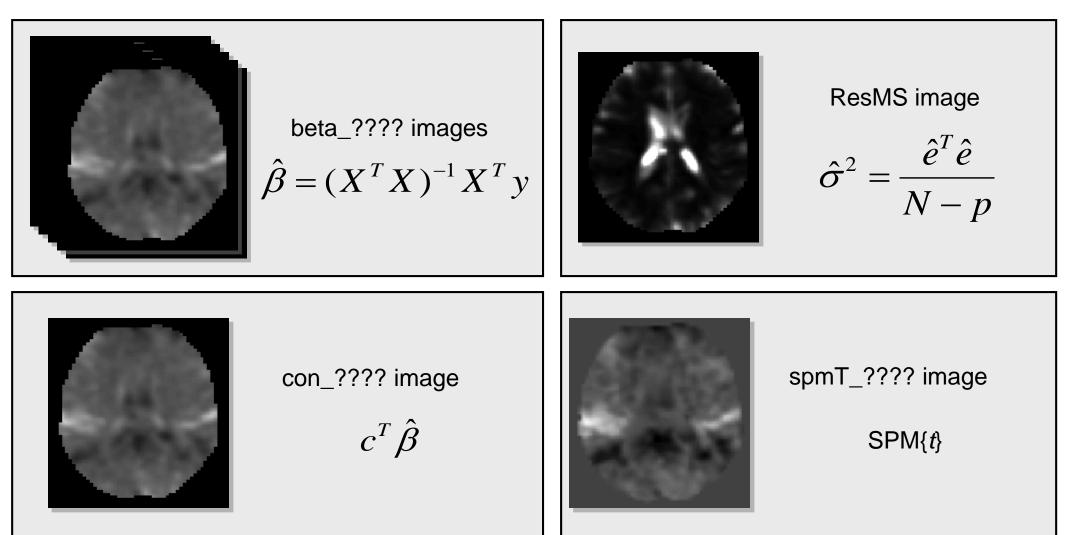


t-contrasts - SPM{t}



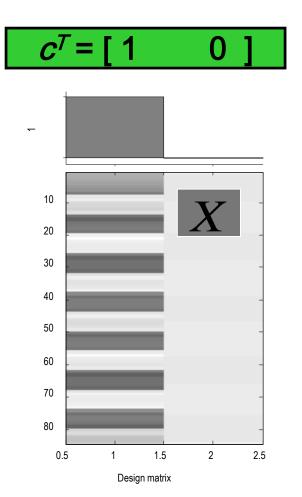
t-contrasts in SPM

For a given contrast *c*:



t-contrast: a simple example

Passive word listening versus rest

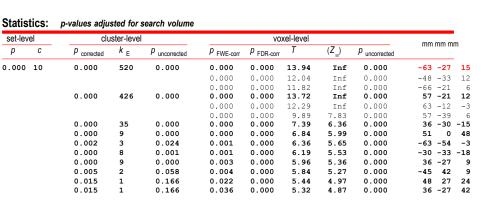


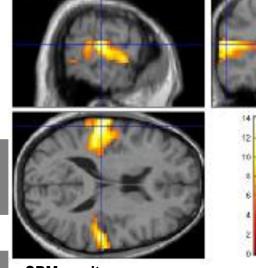
Q: activation during listening?

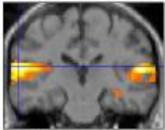
Null hypothesis:
$$eta_1=0$$

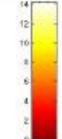
$$t = \frac{c^T \hat{\beta}}{Std(c^T \hat{\beta})}$$

$$p(y \mid c^T \hat{\beta} = 0)$$







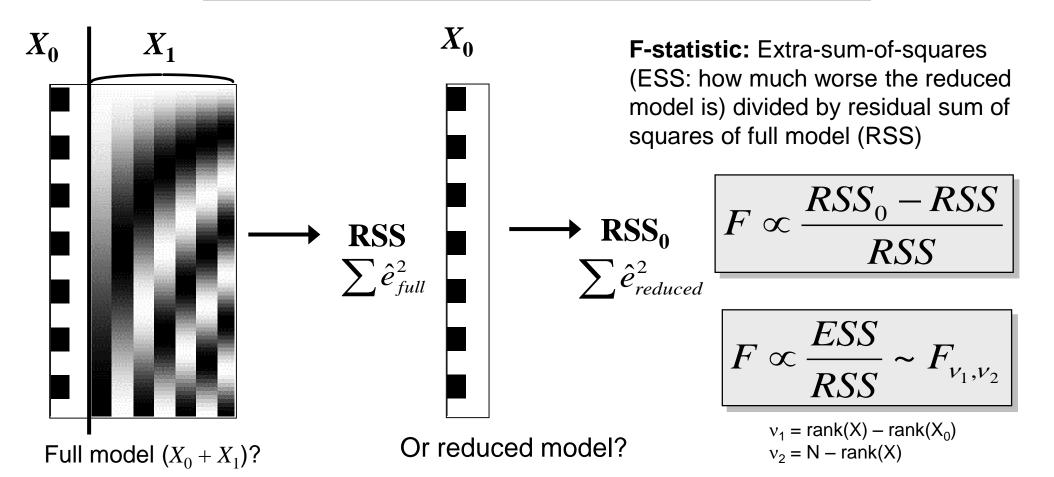


SPMresults: Height threshold $T = 3.2057 \{p < 0.001\}$

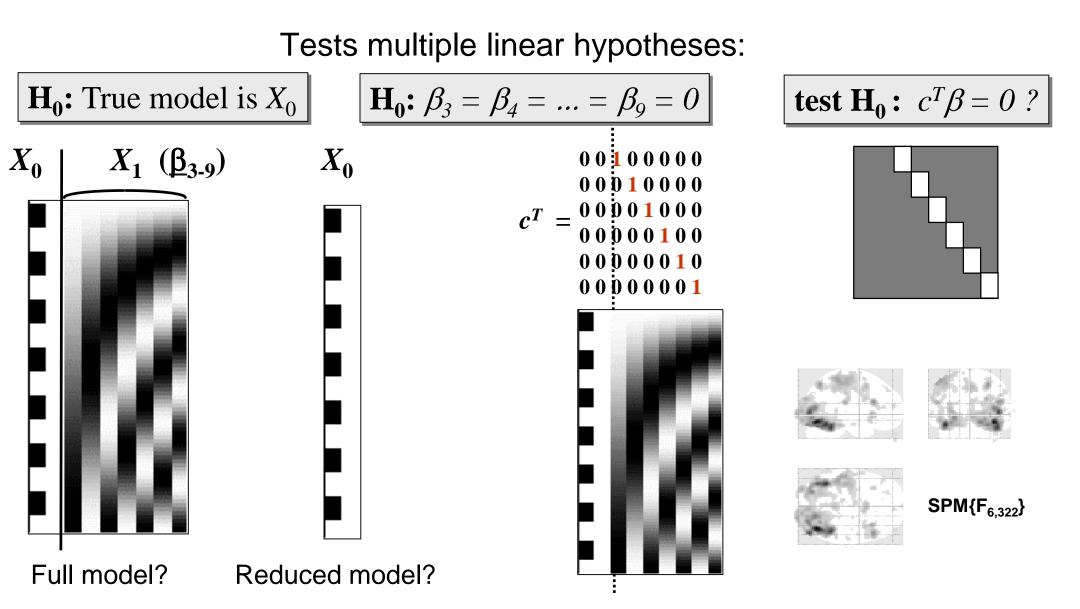
F-test: the extra-sum-of-squares principle

Model comparison: Full vs. reduced model

Null Hypothesis H₀: True model is X_0 (reduced model)



F-test: multidimensional contrasts – SPM{F}



F-test: a few remarks

• Hypotheses:

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Null hypothesis \mathbf{H}_{0} : $\beta_{1} = \beta_{2} = ... = \beta_{p} = 0$ Alternative hypothesis \mathbf{H}_{1} : At least one $\beta_{k} \neq 0$

 F-tests are not directional: When testing a uni-dimensional contrast with an *F*-test, for example β₁ − β₂, the result will be the same as testing β₂ − β₁.

F-contrast in SPM

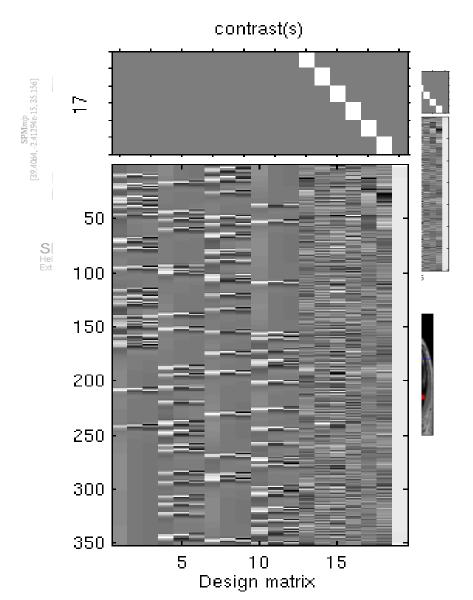
beta_???? images

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$
ResMS image

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\hat{e}^T \hat{e}}{N-p}$$
ResMS image

$$\hat{\sigma}^$$

F-test example: movement related effects

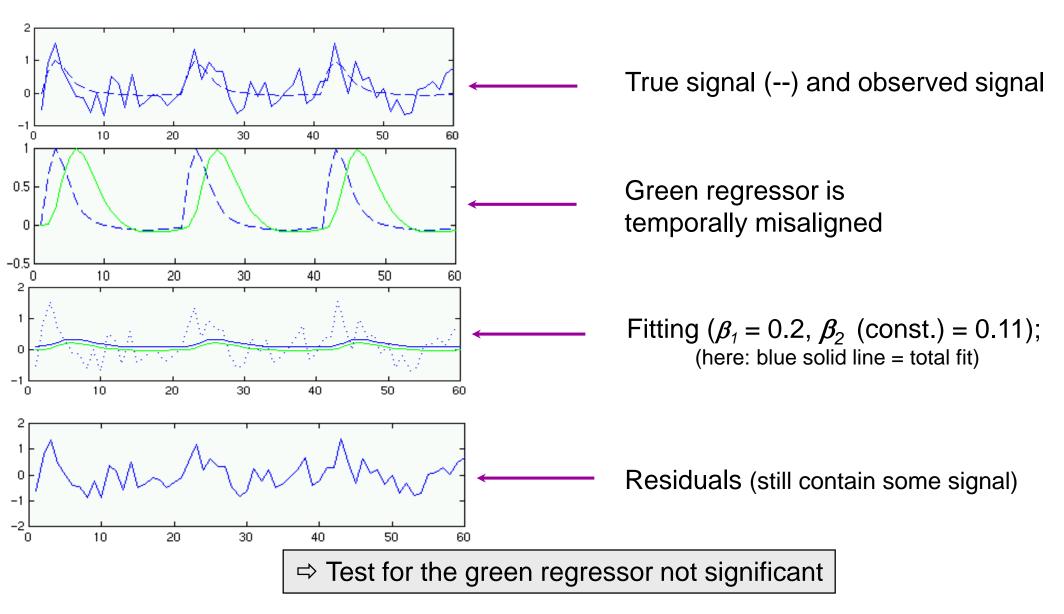


To assess movement-related activation:

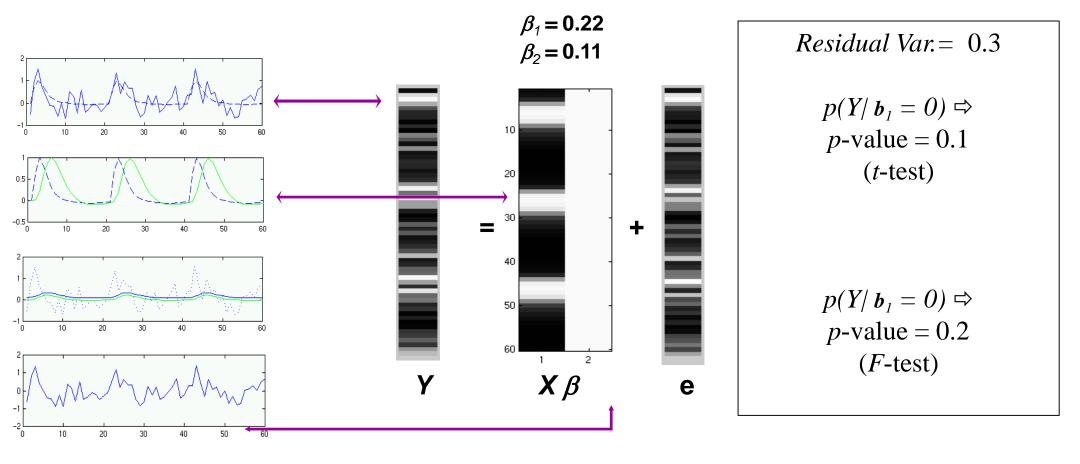
There is a lot of residual movement-related artifact in the data (despite spatial realignment), which tends to be concentrated near the boundaries of tissue types.

By including the realignment parameters in our design matrix, we can "regress out" linear components of subject movement, reducing the residual error, and hence improve our statistics for the effects of interest.

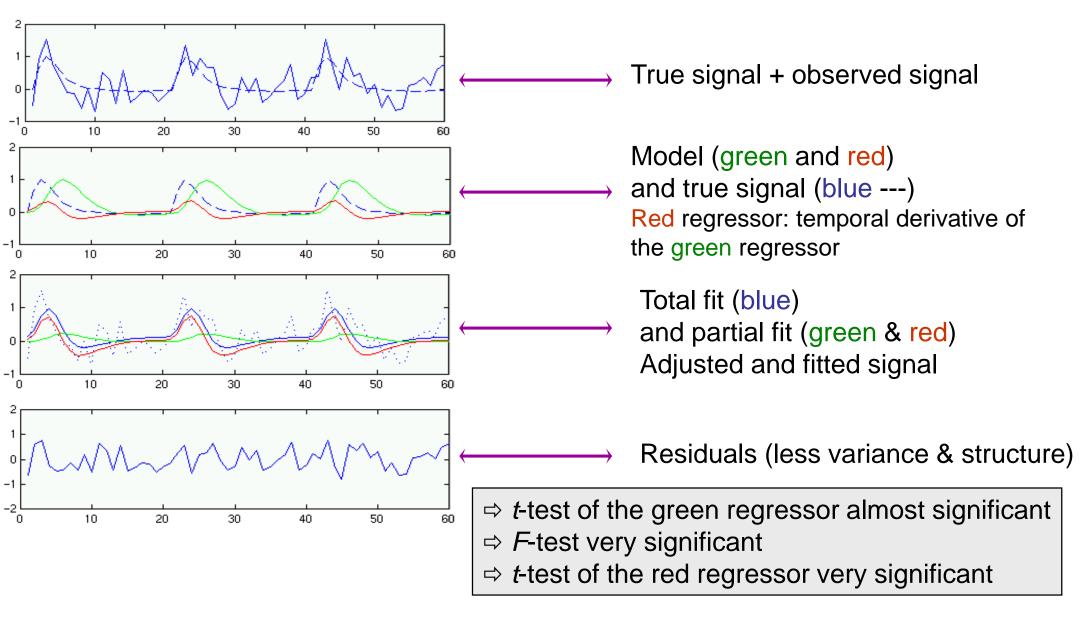
Example: a suboptimal model



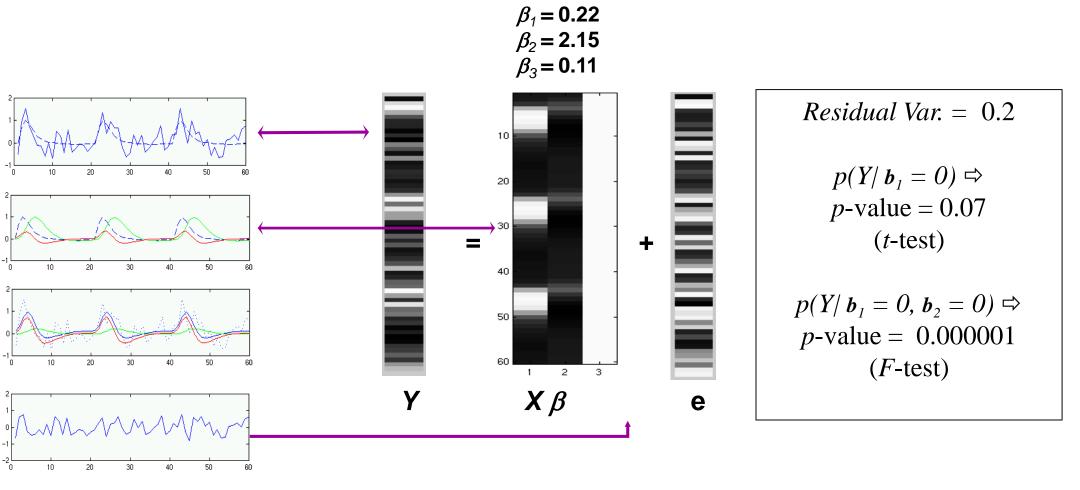
Example: a suboptimal model



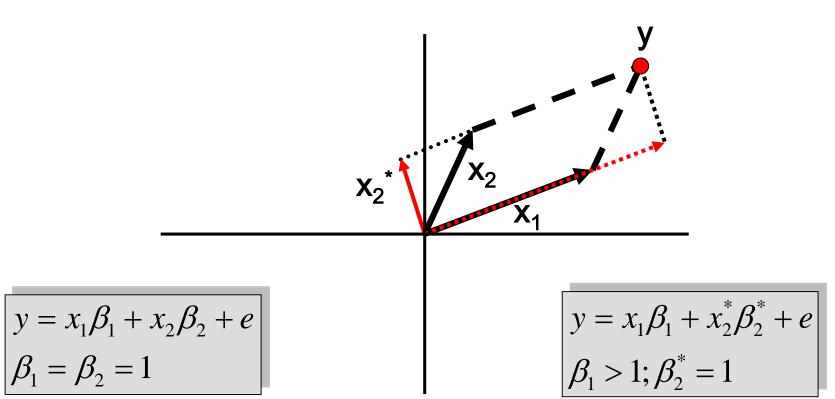
A better model



A better model



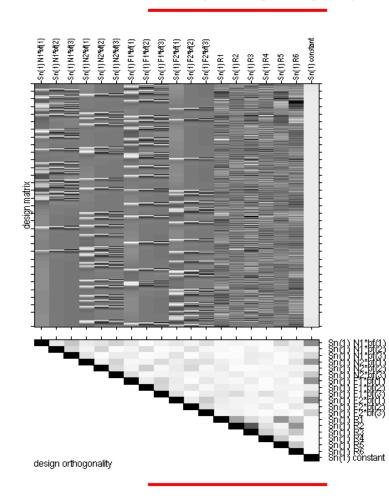
Recap from previous lecture: Correlation among regressors



Correlated regressors = explained variance is shared between regressors When x_2 is orthogonalized with regard to x_1 , only the parameter estimate for x_1 changes, not that for x_2 !

Design orthogonality

Statistical analysis: Design orthogonality



- For each pair of columns of the design matrix, the orthogonality matrix depicts the magnitude of the **cosine of the angle** between them, with the range 0 to 1 mapped from white to black.
- The cosine of the angle between two vectors a and b is obtained by:

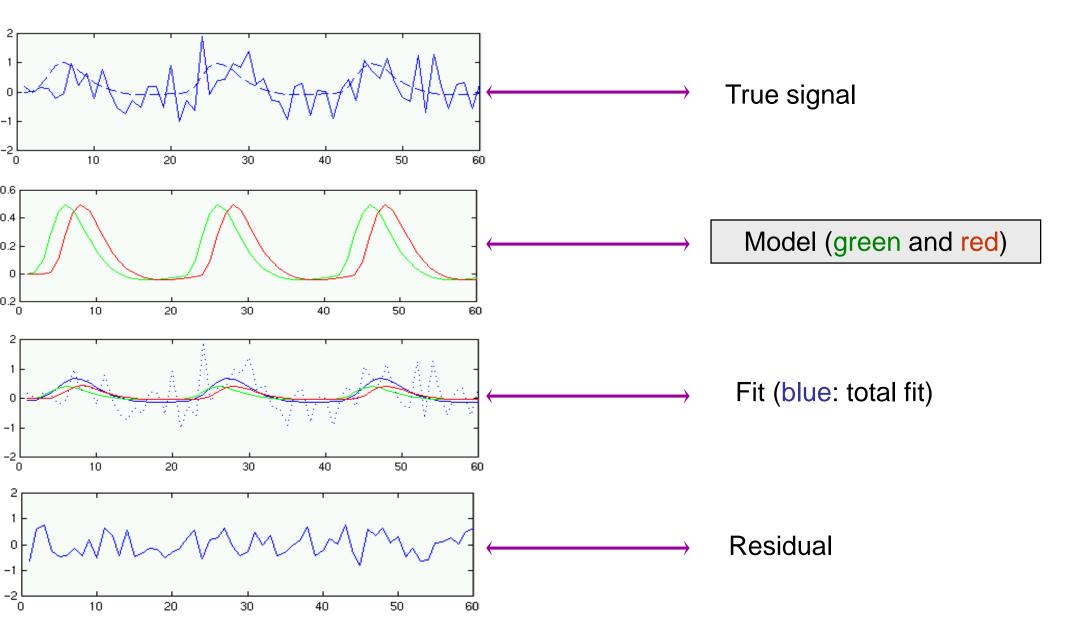
$$\cos\alpha = \frac{ab}{|a||b|}$$

• For **zero-mean vectors**, the cosine of the angle between the vectors is the same as the **correlation** between the two variates:

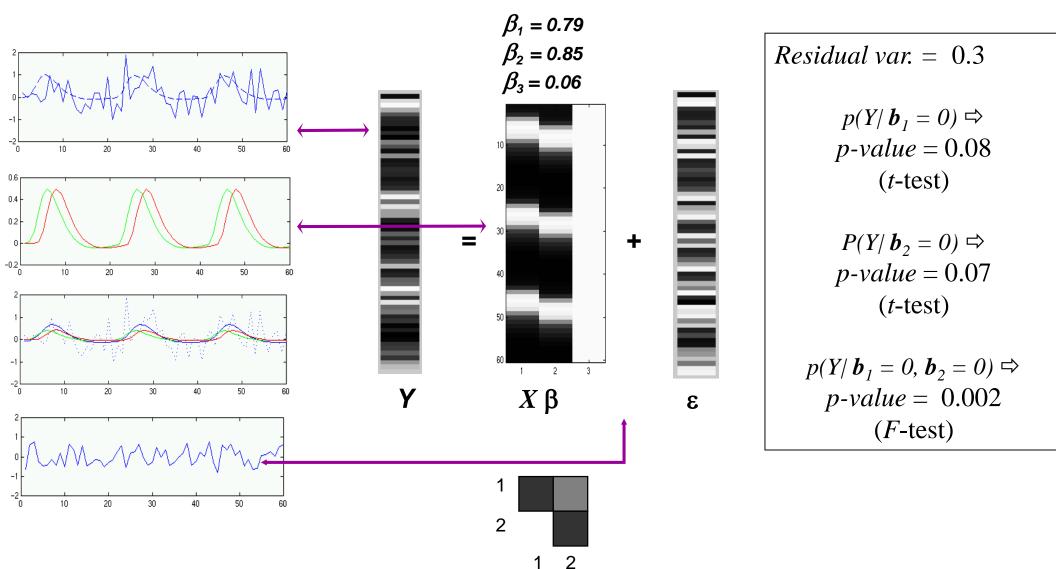
$$\cos \alpha = corr_{a,b}$$

Measure : abs. value of cosine of angle between columns of design matrix Scale : black - colinear (cos=+1/-1) white - orthogonal (cos=0) gray - not orthogonal or colinear

Correlated regressors

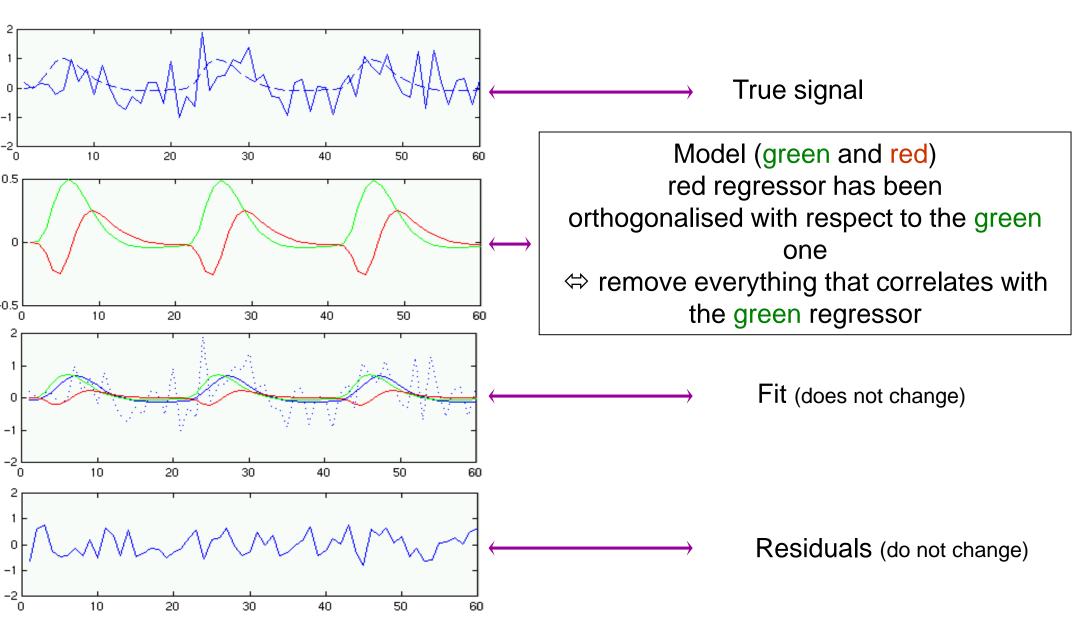


Correlated regressors

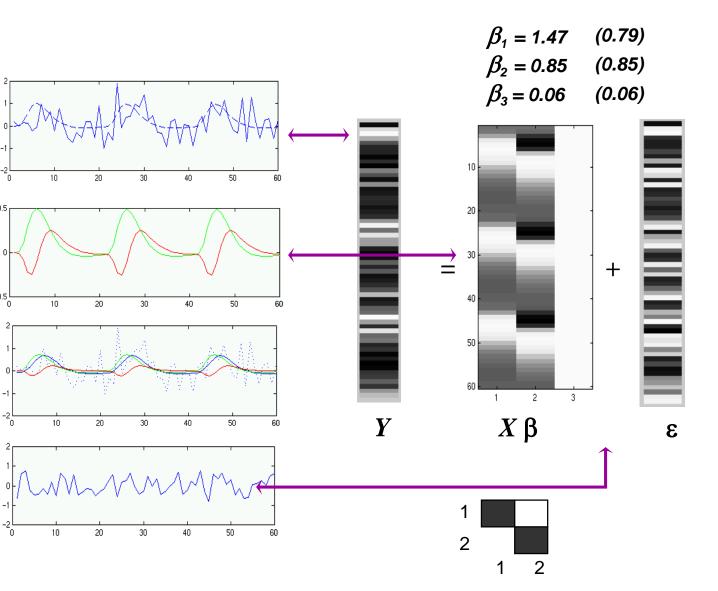


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After orthogonalisation



After orthogonalisation



$$Residual var. = 0.3$$

$$p(Y/b_1 = 0)$$

$$p-value = 0.0003 \quad \text{change}$$

$$(t-\text{test})$$

$$p(Y/b_2 = 0)$$

$$p-value = 0.07 \quad \text{change}$$

$$(t-\text{test})$$

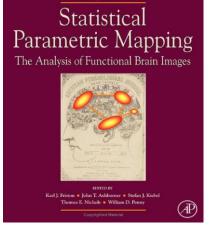
$$p(Y/b_1 = 0, b_2 = 0)$$

$$p-value = 0.002 \quad \text{change}$$

$$(F-\text{test})$$

Bibliography

• Friston KJ et al. (2007) *Statistical Parametric Mapping: The Analysis of Functional Brain Images*. Elsevier.



- Christensen R (1996) Plane Answers to Complex Questions: The Theory of Linear Models. Springer.
- Friston KJ et al. (1995) Statistical parametric maps in functional imaging: a general linear approach. *Human Brain Mapping* 2: 189-210.

Thank you