Introduction à la statistique médicale

Statistical Parametric Mapping short course

<u>Course 4:</u> Experimental Design



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Subtraction Logic

Cognitive subtraction originated with reaction time experiments (F. C. Donders, a Dutch physiologist).

Measure the time for a process to occur by comparing two reaction times, one which has the same components as the other + the process of interest.

Example:

- T1: Hit a button when you see a light
- T2: Hit a button when the light is green but not red
- T3: Hit the left button when the light is green and the right button when the light is red
- T2 T1 = time to make discrimination between light color
- T3 T2 = time to make a decision

Assumption of pure insertion: You can insert a component process into a task without disrupting the other components. Widely criticized (we'll come back to this when we talk about parametric studies)



Franciscus Cornelis Donders (1818-1889)

Activation and baseline condition

<u>Aim:</u>

To reveal brain activation related to a cognitive or sensori-motor process of interest (PI)

Cognitive Subtraction:

Contrast <u>Activation task</u> (engages PI) to a <u>Baseline task</u> (no PI). Difference = Brain regions associated with PI.

Example:

PI = Object recognition

Activation task: with PI



Baseline task: no PI



Difference = Brain regions associated with Object Recognition

Cognitive subtraction: stimulus or task change?





Cognitive Subtraction: Baseline problems

• "Distant" stimuli





→ Several components differ!

• "Related" stimuli



"Queen!"



- "Aunt Jenny?"
- ➔ Process implicit in control task ?

• Same stimuli, different task



Name Person!



Name Gender!

→ Interaction of process and task ?

Cognitive subtraction: serial subtractions

Baseline condition for one contrast acts as activation condition for another contrast



A-B = Name Retrieval B-C = Object Recognition

Very limited ...

Problem with serial subtractions



Assumptions:

- A B = only changes processing associated with Name Retrieval
- B C = only changes processing associated with Object Recognition

BUT

- 1. There may be *implicit* naming in condition B. In which case: naming component is removed from A-B and introduced into B-C.
- 2. Name Retrieval may increase the demands on object recognition

i.e A - B : May reveal Object recognition NOT Name retrieval. B - C : May reveal Object Recognition AND Name Retrieval

Factorial design: main effects & interaction



Main effect of task: (A1 + B1) - (A2 + B2)

Main effect of stimuli: (A1 + A2) - (B1 + B2)



Factorial design: main effects & interaction



B2 – A2 = Object Recognition <u>during naming</u>

B1 – A1 = Object Recognition <u>during viewing</u>



Factorial design: main effects & interaction



Interaction of task and stimuli: Can show a failure of pure insertion (B1 – A1) – (B2 – A2) The effect of Naming on Object recognition (A2 – A1) – (B2 – B1) The effect of object recognition on Naming



Parametric Designs: General Approach

- Parametric designs approach the baseline problem by:
 - Varying the stimulus-parameter of interest on a continuum, in multiple (n>2) steps...
 - ... and relating signal to this parameter
- Possible tests for such relations are manifold:
 - Linear
 - Nonlinear: Quadratic/cubic/etc.
 - "Data-driven" (e.g., neurometric functions)

Parametric design

- No need to find baseline that controls for all but the process of interest
- Segregates areas showing differential effects (linear and nonlinear effects)

But:

- Common effects can not be revealed without a baseline.
- Limited to continuous variables (e.g. duration, frequency, word length, R.T.s etc)

Parametric design: Model-based regressors

"Signals derived from a computational model for a specific cognitive process are correlated against BOLD from participants performing a relevant task, to determine brain regions showing a response profile consistent with that model."

The model describes a transformation between a set of stimuli inputs and a set of behavioural responses.

See e.g. O'Doherty et al., (2007) for a review.

Model-based regressors: Example

Question

Is the hippocampus sensitive to the probabilistic context established by event streams? Rather than simply responding to the event itself.

The same question can be formulated in a quantitative way by using the information theoretic quantities 'entropy' and 'surprise'.

• 'surprise' is unique to a particular event and measures its improbability.

$$I(x_i) = -\ln p(x_i);$$

• 'entropy' is the measure of the expected, or average, surprise over all events, reflecting the probability of an outcome before it occurs.

$$H(X) = \sum_{i} -p(x_i) \ln p(x_i) = \langle I(x_i) \rangle$$

xi is the occurrence of an event. H(X) quantifies the expected info of events sampled from X.

Thus, hippocampus would be expected to process 'entropy' and not 'surprise'.

Model-based regressors: Example



Participants responded to the sampled item by pressing a key to indicate the position of that item in the row of alternative coloured shapes.

The participants will learn the probability with which a cue appears.







Strange et al., (2005)

Model selection

• Model must fit *i.e. model assumptions met*

at every voxel

Omitting relevant effects

- effects contribute to variance
 - \Rightarrow residuals not *iid*. Normal
 - 🙁 model not valid
- outcomes?
 - variance \uparrow (usually, but can \downarrow)
 - increased residual *d.f.*
 - invalid inference

Including irrelevant effects

"waste" degrees of freedom
conservative tests
but safest!



General Linear Model

- (simple) standard statistical technique
 - temporal autocorrelation a *Generalised Linear Model*
- single general framework for many statistical analyses
- design matrix visually characterizes model
 - fit data with combinations of columns of design matrix
- statistical inference: contrasts...
 - t-tests: planned comparisons of the parameters
 - *F*-tests: general linear hypotheses, model comparison

