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Q1 Sample-poor estimation of order and common signal subspace with application to fusion of medical imaging data

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ABSTRACT

Due to their data-driven nature, multivariate methods such as canonical correlation analysis (CCA) have proven 20 very useful for fusion of multimodal neurological data. However, being able to determine the degree of similarity 21 between datasets and appropriate order selection are crucial to the success of such techniques. The standard 22 methods for calculating the order of multimodal data focus only on sources with the greatest individual energy 23 and ignore relations across datasets. Additionally, these techniques as well as the most widely-used methods 24 for determining the degree of similarity between datasets assume sufficient sample support and are not effective 25 in the sample-poor regime. In this paper, we propose to jointly estimate the degree of similarity between datasets 26 and their order when few samples are present using principal component analysis and canonical correlation 27 analysis (PCA-CCA). By considering these two problems simultaneously, we are able to minimize the assump- 28 tions placed on the data and achieve superior performance in the sample-poor regime compared to traditional 29 techniques. We apply PCA-CCA to the pairwise combinations of functional magnetic resonance imaging 30 (fMRI), structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI), and electroencephalogram (EEG) data drawn from pa- 31 tients with schizophrenia and healthy controls while performing an auditory oddball task. The PCA-CCA results 32 indicate that the fMRI and sMRI datasets are the most similar, whereas the sMRI and EEG datasets share the 33 least similarity. We also demonstrate that the degree of similarity obtained by PCA-CCA is highly predictive of 34 the degree of significance found for components generated using CCA. 35

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1. Introduction

The collection of data from multiple modalities has become common 49 in neurological studies, since different modalities are expected to pro-50 vide complementary views of complicated systems, such as the study 51of brain activity (James & Dasarathy, 2014). Thus, full utilization of all 52common information forms the fundamental goal of performing a 5354joint analysis on multimodal data. Since little is known about the intermodality relationships, it is important to minimize the underlying 55assumptions placed on the data and let the data "speak for itself." Be-5657cause of this fact and their ability to treat separate modalities in a symmetric manner, multivariate data-driven methods have proven to be 58quite popular for the fusion of multimodal neurological data, see e.g., 5960 (James & Dasarathy, 2014; Calhoun & Adal, 2009; Adal et al., 2015). To this end, canonical correlation analysis (CCA), which maximizes the cor-61 relation of sources across datasets (Hotelling, 1936), has proven to be an 6263 effective multivariate and data-driven fusion method, see e.g., (Adal

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.03.058 1053-8119/© 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. et al., 2015; Correa et al., 2008; Sui et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2014). How- 64 ever, if the covariances are unknown and must be estimated from the 65 samples, then CCA requires sufficient sample support (Pezeshki et al., 66 2004). This is particularly an issue when performing multimodal data 67 fusion, since the number of samples, *i.e.* subjects, is typically much 68 less than the dimension of the neurological data that is used. Thus, special attention must be paid both before performing an analysis, *i.e.*, 70 when determining the similarity between datasets and their order—the 71 dimension of the signal subspace—and while performing the analysis 72 itself. 73

In this paper, we define the similarity between two datasets as the 74 number of common components that both datasets share, *i.e.*, those 75 components that are correlated across datasets, raising the issue of 76 how to determine this number when the sample size is limited. One 77 of the most popular exploratory techniques to estimate the number of 78 common components between two datasets is based on the canonical 79 correlation coefficients (CCCs) calculated using CCA (Hotelling, 1936) 80 and defining a threshold for the level of the correlation, see *e.g.*, 81 (Hoefs, 1983; Bush et al., 1986; Kennedy et al., 1990; Lin et al., 82 2006). Other methods for estimating the number of common and dissinctive sources include: orthogonal *n*-way partial least squares 84

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(OnPLS) (Löfstedt & Trygg, 2011), generalized singular value decompo-85 86 sition (Alter et al., 2003), and distinctive and common components with simultaneous-component analysis (DISCO-SCA) (van Deun et al., 87 88 2013). These methods all assume sufficient sample support and thus perform poorly when the number of samples is not significantly 89 greater than the number of observations. CCA, in particular, suffers 90 greatly in the sample-poor regime, where all CCCs are significantly 9192 misestimated (Song et al., 2015) and the highest CCCs, usually of 93 greatest interest, may saturate at 1 (Pezeshki et al., 2004), meaning 94that they provide no information about the true relationship between 95the datasets.

Since multimodal data is often quite noisy and of high dimension-96 ality, dimension reduction using principal component analysis (PCA) 97 is a crucial preprocessing step for avoiding the problem of over-98 fitting in subsequent analyses. However, the effectiveness of PCA is 99 intimately tied to the problem of order selection. For a single dataset, 100 the most popular order selection methods define the order based on 101 information theoretic criteria (ITC) (Wax & Kailath, 1985), i.e., by 102using a function of the estimated eigenvalues of the data and the 103number of model parameters. These methods include: Akaike's in-104 formation criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1973), minimum description 105length (MDL) (Rissanen, 1978) or Bayesian information criterion 106 107 (BIC) (Schwarz, 1978), and extensions of those methods, see e.g., (Li et al., 2011). Though these methods have found widespread ap-108 plication in multimodal fusion, they are not directly applicable for 109two major reasons. The first is that almost all of these eigenvalue-110 based methods, with the notable exception of (Nadakuditi & 111 112 Edelman, 2008), assume sufficient sample support. If this is not true, such as for multimodal fusion using CCA, where the number 113 of subjects is much less than the dimension of the data, the perfor-114 mance of these methods deteriorates rapidly because the eigen-115116 values cannot be estimated accurately (Nadakuditi & Edelman, 2008). Additionally, these methods only report on the sources that 117have greatest energy in each dataset individually. Since we are inter-118 ested in common components that are linked across datasets, the use 119 of methods that focus solely on a single dataset is not a desirable so-120lution to the question of order selection for multimodal fusion. This 121provides the incentive to consider the problems of determining the 122 degree of similarity and order jointly. Though not used in the context 123of medical imaging, there are methods that consider these two prob-124lems jointly, see e.g., (Zwick & Velicer, 1986; Hwang et al., 2013), 125126 however these techniques are heuristic and will fail in the samplepoor regime (Roseveare & Schreier, 2015). 127

In this paper, we discuss an effective method, PCA and CCA (PCA-128 CCA) along with the order selection rule from (Song et al., 2015), for 129jointly determining the number of common sources for datasets and 130131 their order, in the sample-poor regime and demonstrate its importance as a preliminary step for multimodal fusion. To the best of 132our knowledge, this method is the only one that addresses the issues 133of common source detection and order selection for the sample-poor 134case encountered when using CCA for multimodal fusion. The versa-135136tility and high performance of this technique are first demonstrated 137through simulations. We then apply this new method to the pairwise combinations of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), 138structural magnetic resonance imaging (sMRI), and electroencepha-139logram (EEG) data drawn from 14 patients with schizophrenia and 140141 22 healthy controls performing an auditory oddball (AOD) task and relate these results to the pairwise fusion results obtained using 142CCA. Through this application, we demonstrate a strong correlation 143 between the number of common components estimated using PCA-144 CCA, *i.e.*, the similarity between datasets, and number of statistically 145significant components estimated during the fusion analysis. This 146technique of investigating the pairwise combinations of datasets 147 drawn from the same subjects provides unique insight into the de-148 gree of complementarity between related data of different 149150modalities.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Theory

2.1.1. Traditional and sample-poor hypothesis test 153

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Let us assume that we have *M* independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) paired samples of $x^{[1]} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $x^{[2]} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ from the twochannel measurement model (Song et al., 2015), 156

$$\mathbf{x}^{[1]} = \mathbf{A}^{[1]}\mathbf{s}^{[1]} + \mathbf{n}^{[1]}$$
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$$\mathbf{x}^{[2]} = \mathbf{A}^{[2]} \mathbf{s}^{[2]} + \mathbf{n}^{[2]}, \tag{1}$$

where $s^{[k]} \in \mathbb{R}^{d+f}$, k = 1, 2, are zero-mean jointly Gaussian random 161 vectors with cross-covariance matrix, $R_{s_1s_2} = E\{s^{[1]}(s^{[2]})^T\}$, given by

$$\mathbf{R}_{s_1s_2} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag} \left(\rho_1 \sigma_1^{[1]} \sigma_1^{[2]}, ..., \rho_d \sigma_d^{[1]} \sigma_d^{[2]} \right) & \mathbf{0}_{d \times f} \\ \mathbf{0}_{f \times d} & \mathbf{0}_{f \times f} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\sigma_i^{[k]}$ is the unknown standard deviation of signal component 163 $s_i^{[k]}$ and ρ_i is the correlation coefficient between $s_i^{[1]}$ and $s_i^{[2]}$.

Thus, both $s^{[1]}$ and $s^{[2]}$ have *d* correlated signals and *f* uncorrelated 164 signals. Without loss of generality, we assume the auto-covariance 165 matrices of $s^{[1]}$ and $s^{[2]}$ to be diagonal. The noise terms $n^{[1]}$ and $n^{[2]}$ 166 are independent of each other, independent of the signals, 167 and zero-mean Gaussian with unknown covariance matrices. Addi- 168 tionally, without loss of generality we assume that $A^{[1]}$ and $A^{[2]}$ are 169 of full column rank and, like the dimensions *d* and *f*, are fixed but 170 unknown.

We collect the *M* sample pairs into data matrices $X^{[1]} = [x_1^{[1]}, ..., x_M^{[1]}]$ 172 and $X^{[2]} = [x_1^{[2]}, ..., x_M^{[2]}]$. When performing CCA when M < m + n, at least 173 m + n-*M* of the sample canonical correlation coefficients, k_i , i = 1, ..., q, 174 $q = \min(m, n)$, will be identically 1 regardless of the values of ρ_i and 175 thus do not provide any information about the relationship between 176 $s^{[1]}$ and $s^{[2]}$ (Pezeshki et al., 2004). Moreover, even in the case where 177 *M* is greater, but not significantly greater, than m + n, the sample canonical correlations may significantly overestimate the population canoni-179 cal correlations (Song et al., 2015). This result provides the incentive to estimate a suitable rank, *r*, in order to reduce the dimensions of $X^{[1]}$ 181 and $X^{[2]}$, thus allowing accurate estimation of the number of correlated signals.

A classical way of estimating *d* is by assuming that the sources are 184 drawn from a multivariate Gaussian distribution and applying a se-185 quence of binary hypothesis tests (Bartlett, 1941; Lawley, 1959). The 186 test begins with s = 0 and compares the two hypotheses $H_0: d = s$ and 187 $H_1: d > s$. If the null hypothesis is rejected, then *s* is increased by one 188 and the test is repeated, until either the null hypothesis is not rejected 189 or s = q. This test is based on the Bartlett–Lawley statistic (Bartlett, 190 1941; Lawley, 1959), which is given by 191

$$C(s) = \left(M - s - \frac{m+n+1}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{s} k_i^{-2}\right) \ln \prod_{i=s+1}^{q} \left(1 - k_i^2\right),$$
(2)

and is asymptotically distributed under H_0 as χ^2 with (m-s)(n-s) de- 193 grees of freedom. The fact that the test statistic is distributed according

to the χ^2 distribution enables the determination of a threshold, T(s), to 194 meet a given probability of false alarm, P_{FA} , for the test. A major comstraint of the traditional framework is the assumption of sufficient samples, *i.e.*, that the k_i 's are accurate estimates of the true k_i 's, making it not applicable for the sample-poor regime. 198

As proposed in (Song et al., 2015), the sample-poor version of the 199 classical hypothesis test selects 200

$$d = \max_{r \in \mathcal{D}} \min_{s \in S} \{ s : C(s, r) < T(s, r) \},$$
(3)

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