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The effect of spatial resolution on decoding accuracy in fMRI multivariate pattern analysis

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ABSTRACT

Multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA) in fMRI has been used to extract information from distributed cortical 17 activation patterns, which may go undetected in conventional univariate analysis. However, little is known 18 about the physical and physiological underpinnings of MVPA in fMRI as well as about the effect of spatial 19 smoothing on its performance. Several studies have addressed these issues, but their investigation was limited 20 to the visual cortex at 3 T with conflicting results. Here, we used ultra-high field (7 T) fMRI to investigate the 21 effect of spatial resolution and smoothing on decoding of speech content (vowels) and speaker identity from au- 22 ditory cortical responses. To that end, we acquired high-resolution (1.1 mm isotropic) fMRI data and additionally 23 reconstructed them at 2.2 and 3.3 mm in-plane spatial resolutions from the original k-space data. Furthermore, 24 the data at each resolution were spatially smoothed with different 3D Gaussian kernel sizes (i.e. no smoothing or 25 1.1, 2.2, 3.3, 4.4, or 8.8 mm kernels). For all spatial resolutions and smoothing kernels, we demonstrate the 26 feasibility of decoding speech content (vowel) and speaker identity at 7 T using support vector machine 27 (SVM) MVPA. In addition, we found that high spatial frequencies are informative for vowel decoding and that 28 the relative contribution of high and low spatial frequencies is different across the two decoding tasks. Moderate 29 smoothing (up to 2.2 mm) improved the accuracies for both decoding of vowels and speakers, possibly due to 30 reduction of noise (e.g. residual motion artifacts or instrument noise) while still preserving information at high 31 spatial frequency. In summary, our results show that - even with the same stimuli and within the same brain 32 areas - the optimal spatial resolution for MVPA in fMRI depends on the specific decoding task of interest. 33

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46 1. Introduction

Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) is currently the most 47popular non-invasive method to investigate human brain structure and 48 49 function. It indirectly measures neural activity primarily via the blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) effect. Standard univariate statis-50tical analysis (i.e. general linear model (GLM) analysis) of the task-51based fMRI data has been utilized to detect voxel-wise differences of 5253BOLD activation levels and, thus, to infer which brain areas are involved in a certain task. In recent years, multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA) 54has been used in fMRI to extract information from spatially distributed 5556activation patterns, which may go undetected in conventional univariate analysis. Reliable decoding of information from fMRI data acquired 57at 3 T has been demonstrated from activation patterns in different 5859brain areas (Haxby et al., 2001; Cox and Savoy, 2003; Haynes and 60 Rees, 2005; Kamitani and Tong, 2005; Kriegeskorte and Bandettini, 612007; Formisano et al., 2008). Different biophysical hypotheses have

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.02.033 1053-8119/© 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. been proposed to explain the ability of MVPA on fMRI data to detect 62 information inaccessible with GLM. It has been suggested that MVPA 63 is sensitive to information encoded at the sub-millimeter scale of 64 neuronal functional columns. Such information, even if sampled at the 65 lower resolution of standard fMRI voxel sizes (e.g. $3 \times 3 \times 3 \text{ mm}^3$), 66 may be accessible by MVPA due to local variations and irregularities in 67 the columnar organization, resulting in weak but consistent biases in 68 fMRI responses of the different voxels (Boynton, 2005; Kamitani and 69 Tong, 2005; Haynes and Rees, 2006; Kamitani and Tong, 2006; 70 Kriegeskorte and Bandettini, 2007); this mechanism is, therefore, 71 named hyperacuity or voxel biased sampling. Alternatively, the transposi-72 tion from high spatial frequency components of columns preferences to 73 lower spatial frequency of the fMRI signal may be attributed to the 74 cortical vasculature. This hypothesis is based on the fact that, using 75 the standard gradient echo (GE) MRI sequences, the fMRI signal stems 76 mostly from veins draining blood from a given tissue volume (see 77 Uludag et al., 2009). Thus, a specific vein could be more sensitive to 78 one neuronal population than another introducing a spatial bias. 79 Hence, this hypothesis is known as biased draining regions (Kamitani 80 and Tong, 2005; Gardner et al., 2006; Kamitani and Tong, 2006; 81 Kriegeskorte and Bandettini, 2007; Gardner, 2010; Kamitani and 82 Sawahata, 2010; Kriegeskorte et al., 2010; Shmuel et al., 2010). 83

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According to another hypothesis, MVPA may rely on large spatial 84 85 scale non-columnar organization (Op de Beeck, 2010), such as radial preference maps (Freeman et al., 2011). Since MVPA represents a com-86 putational scheme to non-locally average the fMRI signal, in this framework, MVPA would be able to detect low spatial frequency information too weak to be detected with univariate analysis. 89

Note that these hypotheses are not mutually exclusive (see Shmuel 90 91 et al., 2010; Swisher et al., 2010). Nevertheless, they do predict testable 92 effects of spatial smoothing on decoding performance. Op de Beeck has 93 shown that spatial smoothing does not deteriorate decoding perfor-94mance of objects and orientations from activation patterns in lateral occipital cortex and V1, respectively (Op de Beeck, 2010). He 9596 interpreted these results as an argument against hyperacuity and in 97 favor of large-scale organization. Further support for this hypothesis comes from the finding that it is possible to decode across experimental 98 sessions performed in different days (Freeman et al., 2011). In contrast, 99 several studies (Swisher et al., 2010; Alink et al., 2013; Misaki et al., 100 2013) demonstrated that spatial smoothing decreases decoding accura-101 cies for orientation and ocular dominance from V1 data, suggesting 102relevant information content at the individual voxel level. The few 103 investigations so far on the underlying mechanisms of MVPA on fMRI 104 data and the effect of spatial smoothing have been limited to the early 105 106 visual cortex. In addition, they have been restricted to a small set of 107 stimuli and decoding tasks (e.g. decoding of orientation, ocular dominance, and direction of motion) and have yielded conflicting evidence. 108

The main goal of the current study is to investigate how information 109at different spatial resolutions contributes to MVPA decoding. We 110 111 employed ultra-high field (7 T) fMRI to acquire high-resolution data (1.1 mm isotropic), which were then reconstructed at different effective 112 spatial resolutions from original k-space data to evaluate the effects of 113 spatial resolution on MVPA decoding performance. Based on an experi-114 115mental paradigm and on stimuli that were used in a previous fMRI study 116at 3 T (Formisano et al., 2008), we presented speech stimuli (vowels) from different speakers and considered the single-trial decoding of 117 vowels and speakers from auditory cortical response patterns. Compared 118 to conventional 3 T fMRI, 7 T fMRI presents several advantages, such as 119 higher signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and contrast-to-noise ratio (CNR), 120 and therefore the possibility of higher spatial resolution with lower par-121 tial volume effects and greater spatial specificity (Yacoub et al., 2005; 122Uludag et al., 2009; Polimeni et al., 2010). On the other hand, it presents 123challenges such as larger distortions, sensitivity to motion, and larger 124 125number of voxels to be handled by the decoding algorithm (Formisano and Kriegeskorte, 2012). Therefore, we also investigated the effects of 126 temporal SNR, CNR, and head motion and of typical noise-reduction 127steps (spatial smoothing) on MVPA performances. 128

1292. Material and methods

2.1. Subjects 130

Ten healthy volunteers (seven females, age range 25-32) with nor-131 132mal hearing took part in this experiment. Informed consent was obtained 133 from all participants according to the approval by the Ethical Committee of the Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience, University of Maastricht. 134

2.2. Stimuli and task 135

We used the same auditory stimuli as in the study of (Formisano 136 et al., 2008) consisting of three vowels (/a/, /i/, /u/) spoken by three 137 different speakers (sp1: female, sp2: male, sp3: male). For each of 138 these 9 conditions, three different tokens were included in order to intro-139duce acoustic variability. All stimuli were equated in length to 230 ms 140 and in sound intensity by matching their root mean square amplitude. 141 For more details about the stimulus properties, please see (Formisano 142 et al., 2008). Prior to the functional experiment, participants were famil-143 144 iarized with the stimuli and were able to recognize the corresponding vowels and speakers. During the fMRI experiment, subjects were 145 instructed to attentively listen to the stimuli while fixating a white 146 cross in the center of the screen. The stimuli were presented in the silent 147 gap between two subsequent image acquisitions (see below). 148

In order to ensure the engagement of the participants in both listen- 149 ing and fixating tasks, the participants performed a one back-task on the 150 speaker dimension irrespectively of the spoken vowel: 10% of the total 151 number of trials were catch-trials (signaled to the participants by the fix- 152 ation cross turning red for 100 ms), in which the subjects were asked to 153 report whether the speaker of the last heard sound was the same as the 154 previous one. Subjects performed the task by pressing a button with 155 either the index ("Yes"-answer) or the middle ("No"-answer) finger of 156 the right hand. Catch-trials were excluded from all subsequent analyses. 157

The sounds were played according to a slow-event related design 158 with a variable interstimulus interval (ISI) of 6–8 TRs (TR = 2500 ms, 159 average ISI 17.5 s). At the beginning of the fMRI session, the volume of 160 the stimuli was adjusted to a comfortable intensity level. The stimuli 161 were presented in the 500 ms silent gap via MR-compatible earphones 162 (Sensimetrics S14, Malden, MA, USA). After the experiment, all subjects 163 reported a clear hearing of the stimuli. Every run consisted of 5 trials for 164 each of the 9 stimulus conditions and 5 catch-trials, resulting in a total of 165 50 trials and a run duration of approximately 15 min. The order of 166 stimulus presentation was randomized within and across runs. Four 167 functional runs were acquired, leading to a total of 200 trials in the 168 whole experiment. 169

2.3. Data acquisition

Functional and anatomical images were acquired with a 7 T Siemens 171 Magnetom scanner using a 32-channel Nova Medical head coil. Four 172 high-resolution (1.1 mm isotropic voxel size) functional runs were 173 acquired using a gradient-echo (GE) EPI sequence (Moeller et al., 174 2010) with the following parameters: TR 2500 ms, TE 22 ms, Partial 175 Fourier 5/8, GRAPPA 2, delay in TR 500 ms, multi-band acceleration fac- 176 tor 2 with blipped-CAIPIRINHA (1/FOV shift 4; Setsompop et al., 2012). 177 The sequence was optimized to maximize tSNR in the auditory cortex. 178 In two separate pilot runs of 140 volumes (~6 min, resting state), we 179 acquired the sequence with these parameters and additionally a variant 180 with GRAPPA 3, Partial Fourier 6/8 and TE 24.4 ms. The latter showed 181 less distortions and signal dropout only in the anterior and posterior 182 parts of the brain albeit with a lower tSNR in the auditory cortex 183 (23.27 versus 34.02, respectively). 184

In addition to the magnitude images, phase images were collected in 185 order to allow image reconstruction with lower voxel resolution (see 186 below for details). 48 slices were acquired centered approximately on 187 the superior temporal gyrus, covering the auditory cortex. One high-188 resolution (0.7 mm isotropic voxel size) anatomical image covering 189 the whole brain was collected using MP2RAGE sequence (Marques 190 et al., 2010). 191

2.4. Data analysis: Preprocessing and univariate analysis

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Functional and anatomical data were preprocessed and analyzed in 193 BrainVoyager QX 2.8.2 (Brain Innovation). The four functional runs 194 were 3D motion corrected and coregistered to the first volume of the 195 first run through rigid-body transformation (3 translational and 3 rota-196 tional parameters). Neither nonlinear transformation nor distortion 197 correction algorithm were applied to avoid interpolation confounds 198 in our comparison across resolutions. We visually inspected every 199 coregistered run and no large motion was observed. Linear and low- 200 frequency non-linear drifts up to 7 cycles per time course were removed 201 via temporal high-pass filtering. This cut-off frequency, corresponding 202 to a cut-off period of ~128 s, was adequate to the stimulus design and 203 analyses here employed (as estimated though spectral analysis of the 204 class stimulus design). For each subject, the anatomical image was seg- 205 mented at the gray-white matter boundary via an automatic procedure. 206

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