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Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

NeuroImage



YNIMG-12969; No. of pages: 10; 4C: 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ynimg

Control-group feature normalization for multivariate pattern analysis of structural MRI data using the support vector machine¹

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9 A R T I C L E I N F O

Article history:
 Received 3 October 2015
 Accepted 14 February 2016

13 Available online xxxx

32 Keywords:

7

8

15

30 39

33 Feature normalization

34 Multivariate pattern analysis

35 Structural MRI

36 Support vector machine

ABSTRACT

Normalization of feature vector values is a common practice in machine learning. Generally, each feature value is 19 standardized to the unit hypercube or by normalizing to zero mean and unit variance. Classification decisions 20 based on support vector machines (SVMs) or by other methods are sensitive to the specific normalization used 21 on the features. In the context of multivariate pattern analysis using neuroimaging data, standardization effec- 22 tively up- and down-weights features based on their individual variability. Since the standard approach uses 23 the entire data set to guide the normalization, it utilizes the total variability of these features. This total variation 24 is inevitably dependent on the amount of marginal separation between groups. Thus, such a normalization may 25 attenuate the separability of the data in high dimensional space. In this work we propose an alternate approach 26 that uses an estimate of the control-group standard deviation to normalize features before training. We study our 27 proposed approach in the context of group classification using structural MRI data. We show that control-based 28 normalization leads to better reproducibility of estimated multivariate disease patterns and improves the classifier performance in many cases. 30

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41 1. Introduction

Machine learning classification algorithms such as the support vec-42tor machine (SVM) (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995; Vapnik, 2013) are often 43 used to map high-dimensional neuroimaging data to a clinical diagnosis 44 or decision. Structural and functional magnetic resonance imaging 45 46 (MRI) are promising tools for building biomarkers to diagnose, monitor, and treat neurological and psychological illnesses. Mass-univariate 47 methods such as statistical parametric mapping (Frackowiak et al., 48 1997; Friston et al., 1991, 1994) and voxel- based morphometry 49 50(Ashburner and Friston, 2000; Davatzikos et al., 2001) test for marginal disease effects at each voxel, ignoring complex spatial correlations and 51multivariate relationships among voxels. As a result, methods have 5253emerged for performing multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA) that leverage the information contained in the covariance structure of the 54images to discriminate between the groups being studied (Craddock 5556et al., 2009; Cuingnet et al., 2011; Davatzikos et al., 2005, 2008, 2009, 572011; De Martino et al., 2008; Fan et al., 2007; Klöppel et al., 2008; 58Koutsouleris et al., 2009; Langs et al., 2011; Mingoia et al., 2012; Mourão-Miranda et al., 2005; Pereira, 2007; Richiardi et al., 2011; 59

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.02.044 1053-8119/© 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. Sabuncu and Van Leemput, 2011; Vemuri et al., 2008; Venkataraman 60 et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2009; Reiss and Ogden, 2010; 61 Gaonkar and Davatzikos, 2013). Identifying multivariate structural and 62 functional signatures in the brain that discriminate between groups 63 may lead to a better understanding of disease processes and is therefore 64 of great interest in the field of neuroimaging research. 65

The SVM is a common choice for estimating multivariate patterns in 66 the brain because it is amenable to high-dimensional, low sample size 67 data. Our focus in this work is on patterns in the brain that reflect struc- 68 tural changes due to disease. However, the methods apply more gener- 69 ally to applications of MVPA using BOLD measurements from fMRI data 70 or measures of connectivity across the brain. The SVM takes as input 71 image-label pairs and returns a decision function that is a weighted 72 sum of the imaging features. The estimated weights reflect the joint 73 contribution of the imaging features to the predicted class label. 74

Machine learning methods in general, and SVMs in particular, 75 are sensitive to differences in feature scales. For example, a SVM will 76 place more importance on a feature that takes values in the range 77 of [1000,2000] than a feature that takes values in the interval [1,2]. 78 This is because the former tends to have a stronger influence on the 79 Euclidean distance between feature vector realizations and therefore 80 drives the SVM optimization. To give all voxels or regions of interest 81 equal importance during classifier training, it is common practice to im- 82 plement feature-wise standardization in some way, either by normalizing 83

[☆] For the Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative.

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each to have mean zero and unit variance or by scaling to a common 84 85 domain. For example, (Peng et al., 2016) scale each feature to be in the interval [0, 1], and (Hanke et al., 2016; Zacharaki et al., 2009; Etzel et al., 86 87 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Sato et al., 2012) normalize to mean zero and unit variance. Such a preprocessing step, while common in practice, 88 tends to be applied without weighing the consequent ramifications in 89 90 a careful manner. Careful consideration must be given to the choice of 91 feature normalization, as it is directly tied to the relative magnitude of 92the estimated SVM weights and thus the performance and interpretation 93 of the classifier. While the original idea of feature scaling dates back to the universal approximation theorem from the neural network literature, 94it has not been explored in detail in the context of neuroimaging and 95MVPA. This is the object of this manuscript. 96

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: in Section 2, we pro-97 vide a brief introduction to MVPA using the SVM, review two popular 98 feature normalization methods, and propose an alternative based on 99 the control-group variability. Using simulations, we compare the per-100 formance of different feature normalization techniques in Section 3. 101 followed by an investigation of the effects of feature normalization on 102 an analysis of data from healthy controls and patients with Alzheimer's 103 disease. We include a discussion in Section 4 and concluding remarks 104 105 in Section 5.

106 2. Material and methods

107 2.1. Multivariate pattern analysis using the SVM

Let $(Y_i, X_i^T)^T$, i = 1, ..., n, denote *n* independent and identically dis-108 tributed observations of the random vector $(Y, X^T)^T$, where $Y \in \{-1, 1\}$ 109denotes the group label, and $X \in \mathbb{R}^p$ denotes a vectorized image with *p* 110 voxels. A popular MVPA tool used in the neuroimaging community is 111 the SVM (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995; Vapnik, 2013). SVMs are known to 112113work well for high dimension, low sample size data (Schölkopf et al., 2004). Such data are common in the neuroimaging-based diagnostic 114 setting. Henceforth, we focus on MVPA using the SVM. 115

The hard-margin linear SVM solves the constrained optimization problem

arg $\min_{v,b} \frac{1}{2} \|v\|^2$ such that $Y_i(v^T X_i + b) \ge 1 \quad \forall i = 1, ..., n,$

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where $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $v \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$ are parameters that describe the classification function. For a given set of training data, let the solution to (1) be denoted by (\tilde{v}, \tilde{b}) . Then, for a new observation X^{new} with unknown label Y^{new} , the classification function $c(X^{new}) = \operatorname{sign}(\tilde{v}^{T}X^{new} + \tilde{b})$ returns a predicted group label.

124 When the data from the two groups are not linearly separable, the 125 soft-margin linear SVM allows some training observations to be either 126 misclassified or fall in the SVM margin through the use of slack variables 127 ξ_i with associated cost parameter *C*. In this case, the optimization 128 problem becomes

$$\arg \min_{\nu,b,\xi} \frac{1}{2} \|\nu\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$

such that :
$$Y_i (\nu^T X_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i \quad \forall i = 1, ..., n,$$
(2)

$$\xi_i \ge 0 \quad \forall i = 1, ..., n,$$

where $C \in \mathbb{R}$ is a tuning parameter that penalizes misclassification, and $\xi = (\xi_1, \xi_2, ..., \xi_n)^T$ is the vector of slack variables. For details about solving optimization problems (1) and (2) we refer the reader to (Hastie et al., 2001). In high-dimensional problems where the number of features is 134 greater than the number of observations, the data are almost always 135 separable by a linear hyperplane (Orrù et al., 2012). However, when 136 applying MVPA to region of interest (ROI) data such as volumes of 137 subregions in the brain, the data may not be linearly separable. In this 138 case, the choice of *C* is critical to classifier performance and generaliz-139 ability. Examples of MVPA using the SVM include classification of multi-140 ple sclerosis patients into disease subgroups (Bendfeldt et al., 2012), the 141 study of Alzheimer's disease (Cuingnet et al., 2011; Davatzikos et al., 142 2011), and various classification tasks involving patients with depres-143 sion (Costafreda et al., 2009; Gong et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012). This is 144 only a small subset of the relavant literature, which demonstrates the 145 widespread popularity of the approach.

2.2. SVM Feature normalization for MVPA

The choice of feature normalization affects the estimated weight 148 pattern of a SVM and can lead to vastly different conclusions about the 149 underlying disease process. Two widely implemented approaches are 150 to (*i*) normalize each feature to have mean zero and unit variance, and 151 (*ii*) scale each feature to have a common domain such as [0,1]. Hence-152 forth, we will refer to (*i*) as *standard normalization* and (*ii*) as *domain* 153 *standardization* (Pedregosa et al., 2011).

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Let μ_j and σ_j denote the mean and standard deviation of the j^{th} 155 feature, j = 1, ..., p. Denote the corresponding empirical estimates 156 by $\overline{X}_j = n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n X_{i,j}$ and $\hat{\sigma}_j = \{(n-1)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{i,j} - \overline{X}_j)^2\}^{1/2}$. Then, 157 subject *i*'s standard-normalized j^{th} feature is calculated as 158

$$X_{i,j}^{Z} = \frac{X_{i,j} - \overline{X}_{j}}{\sigma_{j}}.$$

(1)

Alternatively, subject *i*'s domain-scaled *j*th feature is calculated as

$$X_{i,j}^{U} = \frac{X_{i,j} - \min_{i} X_{i,j}}{\min_{i} X_{i,j} - \min_{i} X_{i,j}}$$

162 One potential drawback of using domain scaling is the instability of the minimum and maximum order statistics, especially in small sample 163 sizes. This may introduce bias in the estimated weight pattern by upand down-weighting features in an unstable way. In comparison, the 165 standard normalization may seem relatively stable. However, it implic-166 itly depends on the relative sample size of each group and the separabil-167 ity between groups. To see this, let f_{X_j} denote the marginal distribution 168 of X_j , with mean μ_j and variance σ_j^2 . Let $f_{X_j + Y = y}$ denote the conditional 169 distribution of X_j given Y = y with mean $\mu_{j,y}$ and variance $\sigma_{i,y}^2$. In addi-170

tion, let
$$\gamma = \operatorname{pr}(Y=1)$$
. Then, $\mu_j = \gamma \mu_{j,1} + (1-\gamma)\mu_{j,-1}$ and 17
 $\sigma_j^2 = E(X_j - \mu_j)^2$

$$\begin{aligned} & = EX_{j}^{2} - \mu_{j}^{2} \\ & = Sx_{j}^{2} \left\{ \gamma f_{X_{j} | Y=1}(x) + (1 - \gamma)f_{X_{j} | Y=-1}(x) \right\} dx - \mu_{j}^{2} \\ & = \gamma \left(\sigma_{j,1}^{2} + \mu_{j,1}^{2} \right) + (1 - \gamma) \left(\sigma_{j,-1}^{2} + \mu_{j,-1}^{2} \right) - \mu_{j}^{2}. \end{aligned}$$

After simplification, the previous expression can be written as

$$\sigma_j^2 = \gamma \sigma_{j,1}^2 + (1 - \gamma) \sigma_{j,-1}^2 + \gamma (1 - \gamma) \left(\mu_{j,1} - \mu_{j,-1} \right)^2.$$
(3)

The right-hand side of expression (3) shows that the variance of feature *j* depends on a mixture of the conditional variances of both clas-176 ses and a term that depends on the squared Euclidean distance between 177 their marginal means. Larger marginal separability of feature *j* will lead 178 to a larger estimate of the pooled standard deviation used for normali-179 zation. Thus, normalizing by the pooled standard deviation can in 180 some cases harshly penalize, or down-weight, features that have good 181

Please cite this article as: Linn, K.A., et al., Control-group feature normalization for multivariate pattern analysis of structural MRI data using the support vector machine, NeuroImage (2016), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2016.02.044

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