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#### Review 1

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#### Comparing connectomes across subjects and populations at different scales 2

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ABSTRACT

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### ARTICLE INFO

11	Article history:	Brain connectivity can be represented by a network that enables the comparison of the different patterns of struc- 2
12	Accepted 16 April 2013	tural and functional connectivity among individuals. In the literature, two levels of statistical analysis have been con- $2$
13	Available online xxxx	sidered in comparing brain connectivity across groups and subjects: 1) the global comparison where a single 2
16	Kaunanda	measure that summarizes the information of each brain is used in a statistical test; 2) the local analysis where a sin-3
17	Keywords: Brain connectivity	gle test is performed either for each node/connection which implies a multiplicity correction, or for each group of 3
18	Magnetic resonance imaging (MPI)	nodes/connections where each subset is summarized by one single test in order to reduce the number of tests to 3
20	Diffusion imaging	avoid a penalizing multiplicity correction. We comment on the different levels of analysis and present some 3
20	Multiple testing	methods that have been proposed at each scale. We highlight as well the possible factors that could influence the 3
22	Multiple comparisons	statistical results and the questions that have to be addressed in such an analysis. 3
23	Bonferroni	© 2013 Published by Elsevier Inc. 3
24	Family-wise error rate (FWER)	
25	False discovery rate FDR	
26	Graph theory	
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54	. Strong control of the type I error	ors at the connections/nodes level
55	Discussion: From raw data to brain graphs:	what can influence the statistical inference?
56	. Reconstructing the fibers pathw	<i>y</i> ays: deterministic or probabilistic?
57	. Defining the regions of interest	: Which parcellation scheme?
58	. Defining the regions of interest	: how many nodes?
59	. Weighted graphs: Which edge	weight?
60	. False positives and false negative	ves connections?
61	. Reproducibility and variability	of graph metrics
62	Conclusion	
63	Acknowledgments	
64	References	
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## 66 Introduction

The human brain, made up of more than 100 billion neurons that 67 68 communicate through trillions of connections, is certainly the most complex organ in the human body. This ensemble of tissues, neurons, 69 glial cells, axons and synapses produces our every thought, action, 70 memory, feeling and experience (Philips, 2006). How the different 71 72components of the human brain interact is still unknown. Since 73Ramón y Cajal (1899) discovered that neurons are discrete unitary 74entities that conduct electrical signals in only one direction from den-75drites (input) to the axon (output), neuroscientists have tried to shed light on the underlying substrate of the structurally integrated and 76functionally specialized regions of the human brain, with the final 7778 scope of understanding brain organization and function. Aware of these attempts, and of the challenge posed by formulating a compre-79 hensive map of the anatomical and functional substrate of the human 80 brain, Hagmann (2005) and Sporns et al. (2005) proposed a concep-81 tual framework in which the entire brain structural connectivity 82 was modeled as a network: the connectome. 83

Due to the innovations in medical imaging and image analysis, and in 84 combination with the quickly developing fields of engineering and image 85 processing, the determination of the interregional brain connectome 86 87 became feasible. This helped to create a better understanding of the human brain, to quantify rates of variabilities, and to associate defined al-88 terations in structural substrate with brain functional deficits and psychi-89 atric diseases in a non-invasive manner. This relatively simple way of 90 modeling the brain connectivity has been successfully used in the study 9192of diseases such as schizophrenia (Bassett et al., 2008; Fornito et al., 93 2011; Liu et al., 2008), Alzheimer's disease (He et al., 2008), Parkinson's 94 disease (Wu et al., 2009) and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder 95(ADHD) (Sato et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2009b), among others.

96 Macroscopic brain connectivity can be derived either from morpho-97 logical diffusion or functional neuroimaging data (e.g., Achard et al., 2006; Cammoun et al., 2012; Daducci et al., 2012; Friston, 2011; 98 Hagmann et al., 2010a; Liu et al., 2008; van den Heuvel and 99 Hulsoff-Pol, 2010). Sporns (2007) writes that "brain connectivity refers 100 101 to a pattern of anatomical links (anatomical connectivity), of statistical 102 dependencies (functional connectivity) or of causal interactions (effective connectivity) between distinct units within a nervous system." 103 These pairwise relations can be represented either by a connection ma-104 trix A, where each cell  $a_{ii}$  of the matrix represents a certain measure of 105 106 connectivity between two regions of interests (ROIs) i and j of the brain or, equivalently, by a network (in the graph theory sense). This 107 is an abstract representation and a simplification of the complexity of 108 109 the real brain network (Kaiser, 2011). The brain network is a weighted graph G(V, E, W(E)) with |V| nodes that correspond to the ROIs, and |E|110 111 connections (edges) between the nodes and a weight function that associate to each existing edge *e* in *E*, a univariate (or multivariate) 112 113 weight.

Investigating differences between connectomes of different groups 114 of individuals using connectivity matrices or networks is very attractive 115116 and challenging (van Wijk et al., 2010). It raises also a number of prob-117 lems that investigators need tobe aware of. When summary measures like global clustering coefficient or global efficiency are used, little in-118sight is gained on the details of potential pathological processes, and 119local phenomena are diluted in the global mean. Exploring in isolation 120121specific connections on the other hand, requires a detailed understanding of the underlying phenomena. Such knowledge is rarely present in 122neuroscience and does not really require the connectome framework. 123 Finally, exploring blindly all the connections of a network in order to 124 identify potential connectivity differences is problematic since most of 125the time the number of tests to perform is high, which decreases the 126power of tests after the multiplicity correction. 127

The first level considered in brain connectivity studies and comparisons is the global level (Bassett and Bullmore, 2009). A single summary statistic is extracted for each subject and a t-test is usually performed to assess the between groups effect, afterremoving the 131 influence of nuisance covariables. In such studies, several tests are 132 usually performed on the same dataset using different network mea- 133 sures as summary statistics. Despite this multiplicity, no correction is 134 applied in order to avoid theincrease of the rate of false discoveries. 135

The first attempt to address local statistical analysis in brain networks using a specially-dedicated method, is the method of Zalesky 137 et al. (2010a) called the Network Based Statistic which proceeds by 138 supra-thresholding to identify significantly differentiated connected 139 components between groups. Other statistical methods have been proposed to asses local brain connectivity differences such as the Spatial 141 Pairwise Clustering (Zalesky et al., 2012a), the statistical parametric 142 network (Ginestet and Simmons, 2011) and the Sub-Network Based 143 Analysis (Meskaldji et al., 2011a). These strategies have, however, 144 some limitations as we will show in this review. In these approaches, 145 the multiplicity correction cannot be avoided.

An alternative way to assess differences between groups through 147 connectomes is to adopt a classification approach. The key idea is to extract discriminative features from a training dataset, in order to classify 149 new subjects (Robinson et al., 2010). The classification approach has a 150 completely different framework from the testing approach. Following 151 the Neyman and Pearson formulation of testing, the first concern is to 152 build tests or multiple testing procedures which make "not too many" 153 false discoveries. In this review, we do not discuss the classification approach. However, we refer the reader to the following references: 155 Robinson et al. (2010), Richiardi et al. (2011, in press). 156

This review is organized as follows. In the section Graph theory and 157 brain networks, we review topological network measures and methods 158 for comparing connectomes at the global level. In the section Local 159 analysis, we review the statistical methods proposed in the literature 160 at the local level with a short review of the most important aspects of 161 multiple testing. We present as well in the Local analysis section, an 162 adaptive method that exploits the positive dependence in brain networks, which control the rate of false discoveries at the level of connections/nodes. Finally, we discuss in the section Discussion: From raw 165 data to brain graphs: what can influence the statistical inference?, the 166 factors that could influence the statistical inference.

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## Graph theory and brain networks

## Topological network measures

In recent years, modeling the human brain as a network has become 170 popular as it is considered as a relatively simple way to characterize the 171 complexity of the human brain connectivity and activity. The connectome 172 and the graph theory frameworks have been increasingly used in the 173 study of human neuroimaging data, especially in the case of neuropsychi- 174 atric disorders, as both are thought to formalize questions relative to pos- 175 sible alterations and evolution of the brain connectivity architecture. 176 Indeed, freely available software packages have been introduced to ana- 177 lyze network topology (e.g. Brain Connectivity Toolbox (Rubinov and 178 Sporns, 2010); eConnectome (He et al., 2011); NetworkX (http:// 179 networkx.lanl.gov/overview.html); GAT (Hosseini et al., 2012); igraph 180 (http://igraph.sourceforge.net/) and Brainwaver (http://cran.r-project. 181 org)). From this point of view, it seems therefore natural to compare 182 groups of subjects, e.g. healthy versus pathological subjects, in terms of 183 variation of quantitative measures which describe some brain network 184 topological features. It has been shown, for example, that structural and 185 functional brain networks share certain properties of complex networks 186 such as small-world topology, highly connected hubs and modularity 187 (Bullmore and Sporns, 2009). 188

A wide range of network measures is commonly used to characterize the global organizational principles and the local network properties of the large-scale brain networks. However, the link between graph properties and the brain's ability to segregate, integrate, modularize, process or transmit information is completely unknown.

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