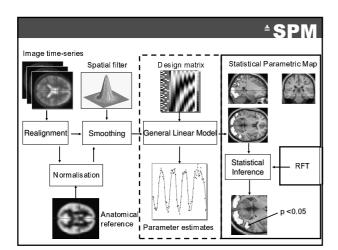
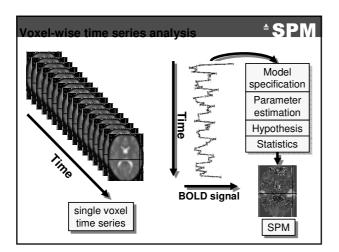
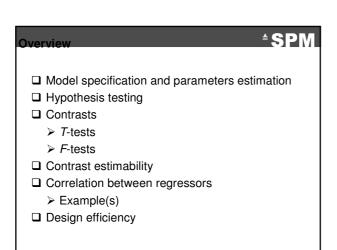
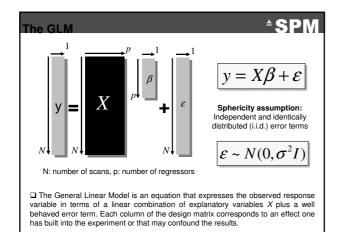
Statistical Inference J. Daunizeau Institute of Empirical Research in Economics, Zurich, Switzerland Brain and Spine Institute, Paris, France SPM Course Edinburgh, April 2011





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☐ Model specification and parameters estimation
☐ Hypothesis testing
☐ Contrasts
> T-tests
> F-tests
☐ Contrast estimability
☐ Correlation between regressors
Example(s)
☐ Design efficiency





$$\Box$$
 Find $\hat{\beta}$ that minimises $\left\|y - X\beta\right\|^2 = \varepsilon^T \varepsilon$

☐ The Ordinary Least Estimates are:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

 $\hfill \square$ Under i.i.d. assumptions, the Ordinary Least Squares estimates are Maximum Likelihood.

$$\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I) \xrightarrow{\qquad \qquad Y \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 I)} \hat{\beta} \sim N(\beta, \sigma^2 (X^T X)^{-1})$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\hat{\varepsilon}^T \hat{\varepsilon}}{N - p}$$

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Hypothesis testing

To test an hypothesis, we construct "test statistics".

☐ The Null Hypothesis H₀

Typically what we want to disprove (no effect).

 \Rightarrow The Alternative Hypothesis H_{A} expresses outcome of interest.

☐ The Test Statistic T

The test statistic summarises evidence about H₀.

Typically, test statistic is small in magnitude when the hypothesis ${\rm H}_{\rm 0}$ is true and large when false.

 \Rightarrow We need to know the distribution of T under the null hypothesis.



Null Distribution of T

Significance level and p-value *SPM
\Box Significance level α : u_{α}
Acceptable false positive rate α . \Rightarrow threshold u_{α}
Threshold u_a controls the false positive rate $\alpha = p(T > u_a \mid H_0)$
Observation of test statistic to a realisation of T
Naii Distribution of 1
☐ The conclusion about the hypothesis: We reject the null hypothesis in favour of the
alternative hypothesis if $t > u_a$
P-value:
A p-value summarises evidence against H ₀ . This is the chance of observing value more
extreme than <i>t</i> under the null hypothesis.
$p(T > t \mid \boldsymbol{H}_0)$ Null Distribution of T
Type I and II errors *SPM
□Neyman-Pearson lemma:
➤ the likelihood ratio
$\Lambda = \frac{p(Y H_1)}{p(Y H_0)} \ge u$
is the most powerful test of size (FPR)
$\alpha = p\left(\Lambda \ge u \middle H_0\right)$
☐ Increasing the FPR decreases power
Type I error is more serious than type II error
➤ We choose to keep the type I error low (5%)
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- \Box We are usually not interested in the whole β vector.
- ☐ A contrast selects a specific effect of interest:

 ⇒ a contrast *c* is a vector of length *p*.

 - $\Rightarrow c^{\mathsf{T}}\beta$ is a linear combination of regression coefficients β .



$$c^{T} = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ \dots]$$

$$c^{T}\beta = 1 \times \beta_{1} + 0 \times \beta_{2} + 0 \times \beta_{3} + 0 \times \beta_{4} + 0 \times \beta_{5} + \dots$$

$$c^T = [0 -1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \dots]$$

$$c^{\mathsf{T}}\beta = 0\times\beta_1 + -1\times\beta_2 + 1\times\beta_3 + 0\times\beta_4 + 0\times\beta_5 + \dots$$

☐ Under i.i.d assumptions:

$$c^{T}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N(c^{T}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}c^{T}(\boldsymbol{X}^{T}\boldsymbol{X})^{-1}c)$$

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 $c^T = 10000000$



 $\beta_1 \beta_2 \beta_3 \beta_4 \beta_5 ...$



box-car amplitude > 0 ?

$$\beta_1 = c^{\mathsf{T}} \beta > 0 ?$$

Null hypothesis:



contrast of estimated

Test statistic:

parameters variance estimate

$$T = \frac{c^T \hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(c^T \hat{\beta})}} = \frac{c^T \hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c}} \sim t_{N-p}$$

7-contrast in SPM

☐ For a given contrast c:



beta_???? images





ResMS image

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\hat{\varepsilon}^T \hat{\varepsilon}}{N - p}$$

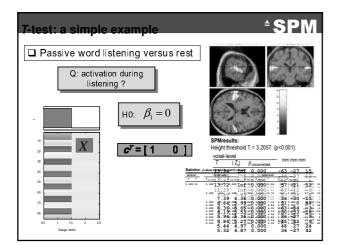


con_???? image $c^{T}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$

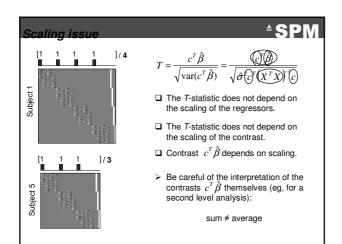


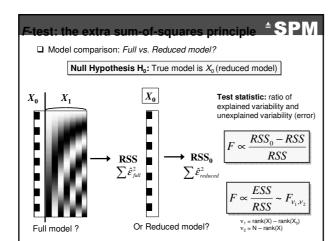
spmT_???? image

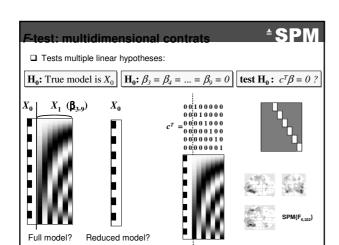
SPM{t}

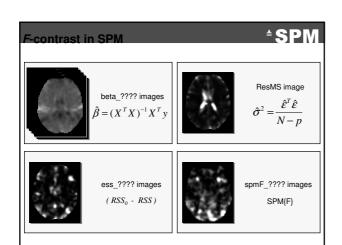


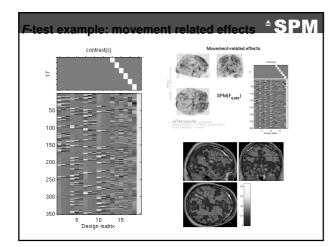
T-test: a few remarks
☐ 7-test is a signal-to-noise measure (ratio of estimate to standard deviation of estimate).
☐ <i>T</i> -contrasts are simple combinations of the betas; the T-statistic does not depend on the scaling of the regressors or the scaling of the contrast.
□ Unilateral test: H_0 : $c^T \beta = 0$ vs H_A : $c^T \beta > 0$
l









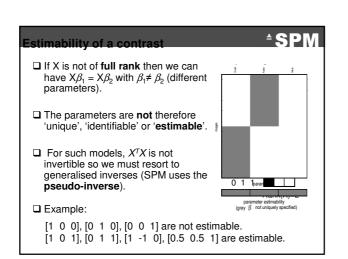


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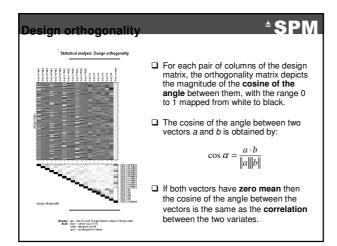
Think of it as constructing 3 regressors from the 3 differences and complement this new design matrix such that data can be fitted in the same exact way (same error, same fitted data).

- □ F-tests can be viewed as testing for the additional variance explained by a larger model wrt a simpler (nested) model \$\infty\$ Model comparison.
- \Box F tests a weighted sum of squares of one or several combinations of the regression coefficients β .
- $\hfill \square$ In practice, we don't have to explicitly separate X into $[X_1X_2]$ thanks to multidimensional contrasts.
- ☐ Hypotheses:
 - $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ Null Hypothesis H_0 : $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$
 - Alternative Hypothesis H_A : at least one $\beta_k \neq 0$
- □ In testing uni-dimensional contrast with an F-test, for example $\beta_1 \beta_2$, the result will be the same as testing $\beta_2 \beta_1$. It will be exactly the square of the t-test, testing for both positive and negative effects.

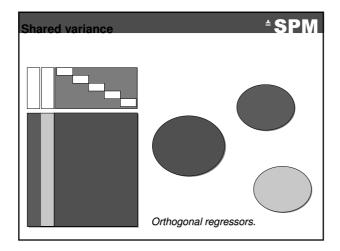
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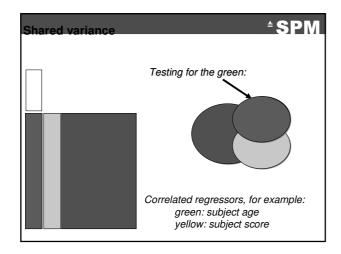


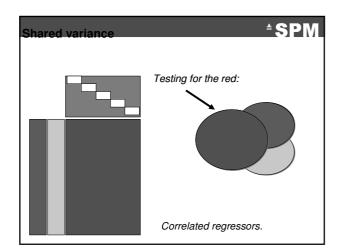
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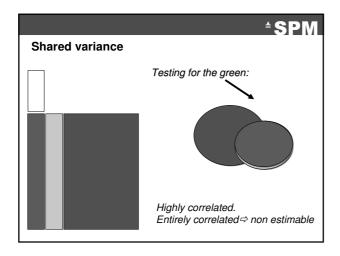


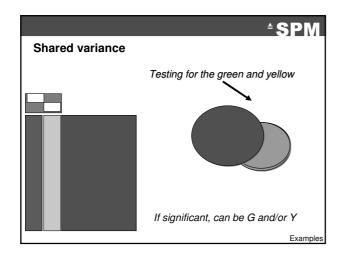
Multicollinearity *SPM
□ Contrast covariance matrix: $Var(c^T\hat{\beta}) = \sigma^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c$
☐ Orthogonal regressors (=uncorrelated): By varying each separately, one can predict the combined effect of varying them jointly.
$(X^TX)^{-1}$ is diagonal
□ Non-orthogonal regressors (=correlated): When testing for the first regressor, we are effectively removing the part of the signal that can be accounted for by the second regressor ⇒ implicit orthogonalisation.
x_{2} x_{3} x_{4} x_{5} x_{1} x_{2} x_{2} x_{3} x_{4} x_{5} x_{5
It does not reduce the predictive power or reliability of the model as a whole.











☐ We implicitly test for an <u>additional</u> effect only, be careful if there is correlation

- Orthogonalisation = decorrelation : not generally needed Parameters and test on the non modified regressor change

 $\ensuremath{\square}$ It is always simpler to have orthogonal regressors and therefore designs.

 $\ensuremath{\square}$ In case of correlation, use F-tests to see the overall significance. There is generally no way to decide to which regressor the " common » part should be attributed to.

 $\hfill \square$ Original regressors may not matter: it's the contrast you are testing which should be as decorrelated as possible from the rest of the design

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Design eficiency

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☐ The aim is to minimize the standard error of a *t*-contrast (i.e. the denominator of a *t*-statistic).

$$T = \frac{c^T \hat{\beta}}{\sqrt{\operatorname{var}(c^T \hat{\beta})}}$$

$$var(c^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}^2 c^T (\boldsymbol{X}^T \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} c$$

☐ This is equivalent to maximizing the efficiency e:

$$e(\hat{\sigma}^2, c, X) = \left[\hat{\sigma}^2 c^T (X^T X)^{-1} c\right]^{-1}$$
Noise variance
Design variance

- ☐ This is a relative measure: all we can really say is that one design is more efficient than another (for a given contrast).

Design efficiency

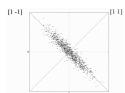
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☐ The efficiency of an estimator is a measure of how reliable it is and depends on error variance (the variance not modeled by explanatory variables in the design matrix) and the design variance (a function of the explanatory variables and the contrast tested).

1 -0.9

-0.9 1

- \square X^7X represents covariance of regressors in design matrix; high covariance increases elements of $(X^7X)^{-1}$.
- ☐ High correlation between regressors leads to low sensitivity to each regressor alone.



 $c^{T}(X^{T}X)^{-1}c$

 $c^T = [1 \ 0]: 5.26$

 $c^T = [1 \ 1]: 20$

 $c^T = [1 - 1]: 1.05$

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≜SPM

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