NEU502B Homework 4: Multivariate pattern analysis

Due March 27, 2024

Submission instructions: First, rename your homework notebook to include your name (e.g. homework -4-nastase.ipynb); keep your homework notebook in the homework directory of your clone of the class repository. Prior to submitting, restart the kernel and run all cells (see Kernel > Restart Kernel and Run All Cells...) to make sure your code runs and the figures render properly. Only include cells with necessary code or answers; don't include extra cells used for troubleshooting. To submit, git add, git commit, and git push your homework to your fork of the class repository, then make a pull request on GitHub to sync your homework into the class repository.

In this homework assignment, you will work through three commonly used methods in cognitive computational neuroscience: (1) neural decoding via multivariate pattern analysis (MVPA); (2) representational similarity analysis (RSA); and (3) voxelwise encoding analysis using regularized regression. Each of these problems builds on tools and ideas we've introduced in the in-class lab notebooks.

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
```

Problem 1: Multivariate pattern classification

First, we'll start with a simple example of classifying distributed response patterns for different object categories from Haxby et al., 2001. We'll begin by loading in the data, as well as labels for the stimuli and runs. You'll need to change data_dir to a directory on your computer (or the server); if you've already downloaded this dataset in lab, you can set data_dir to the existing directory to save time.

```
from nilearn import datasets
from nilearn.image import index_img
import pandas as pd

# Change this path to a directory on your computer!
data_dir = '/usr/people/bm1327/neu502b-2024/nilearn-data'

# Load the Haxby et al., 2001 data via Nilearn
haxby_dataset = datasets.fetch_haxby(data_dir=data_dir)

# Load in session metadata as pandas DataFrame
session = pd.read_csv(haxby_dataset.session_target[0], sep=" ")

# Extract stimuli and run labels for this subject
```

```
stimuli, runs = session['labels'].values, session['chunks'].values

# Create a boolean array indexing TRs containing a stimulus (non-rest)
task_trs = stimuli != 'rest'

# Get list of unique stimulus categories (excluding rest)
categories = [c for c in np.unique(stimuli) if c != 'rest']

# Extract task TRs for fMRI data and stimulus/run labels
func_task = index_img(haxby_dataset.func[0], task_trs)
stimuli_task = stimuli[task_trs]
runs_task = runs[task_trs]
```

Use **NiftiMasker** (with **standardize=True**) to create a masker for ventral temporal (VT) cortex. Use the masker to extract the the NumPy array containing the functional data. (We'll analyze the data using scikit-learn rather than nilearn.)

```
# Get the VT mask file and creater masker:
from nilearn.maskers import NiftiMasker
mask_vt = haxby_dataset['mask_vt'][0]
masker_vt = NiftiMasker(mask_img=mask_vt, standardize=True)
```

Now, we'll set up a full SVM classification analysis using leave-one-run-out outer cross-validation with a nested leave-one-run-out inner cross-validation loop for grid search across the values of the SVM regularization parameter C. Sounds like a lot! But scikit-learn makes it pretty straightforward. First, initialize the LinearSVC estimator. Since this well-behaved dataset has the same number of samples for each stimulus category in each run, we can perform leave-one-run-out cross-validation using just KFold rather than having to specify the runs directly. Initalize an outer KFold cross-validator with 12 splits and an inner KFold cross-validator with 11 splits. We'll search over a handful of C parameters: param_grid = {'C': [1e-2, 1e-1, 1]}. Initialize the GridSearchCV estimator with the SVM estimator, the parameter grid, and the inner cross-validator; then, submit this estimator to cross_val_predict with the outer cross-validator to run the full analysis. (This may take a few minutes to run!)

Inspect the resulting predictions. We'll evaluate our classifier's predictions in two ways. First, use accuracy_score from sklearn.metrics to evaluate the predictions (across all test sets) against the actual labels in terms of a single classification accuracy. Procedurally, this is slightly different from computing accuracies on the test for each fold and averaging them—but the resulting value should be the same.

```
# Print accuracy score:
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
score = accuracy_score(stimuli_task, pred)
print(f'accuracy score: {score}')
accuracy score: 0.7233796296296297
```

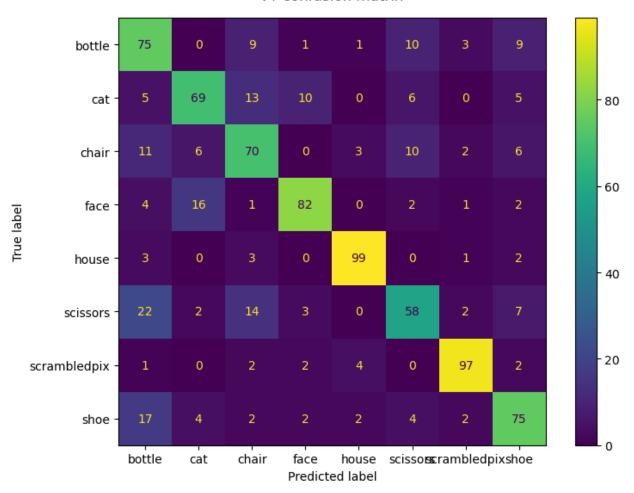
To better understand what our classifer is doing (i.e. what it's getting right and what it's getting wrong), we'll construct a confusion matrix. Construct the confusion matrix from the actual stimulus labels and the classifer's predicted labels and plot it below. What categories does the classifier tend to misclassify?

```
# Create confusion matrix from true and predicted labels:
from sklearn.model_selection import cross_val_predict
from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix, ConfusionMatrixDisplay

cm = confusion_matrix(stimuli_task, pred)

# Plot confusion matrix:
fig,ax = plt.subplots(figsize = (8,6))
ConfusionMatrixDisplay(cm, display_labels = categories).plot(ax=ax)
plt.suptitle('VT confusion matrix')
plt.tight_layout()
```

VT confusion matrix



Lastly, we'll repeat the same analysis for functional regions of interest (ROIs) maximally responsive to faces (roughly FFA) and houses (roughly PPA). Use the mask_face and mask_house files from the dataset to create an FFA masker and a PPA masker; extract the functional data for both. Submit these datasets to the same analysis as above, and visualize the results in terms of an overall accuracy score and confusion matrix. Interpret the accuracies and confusion matrices in light of the expected chance accuracy, given what you know about these ROIs.

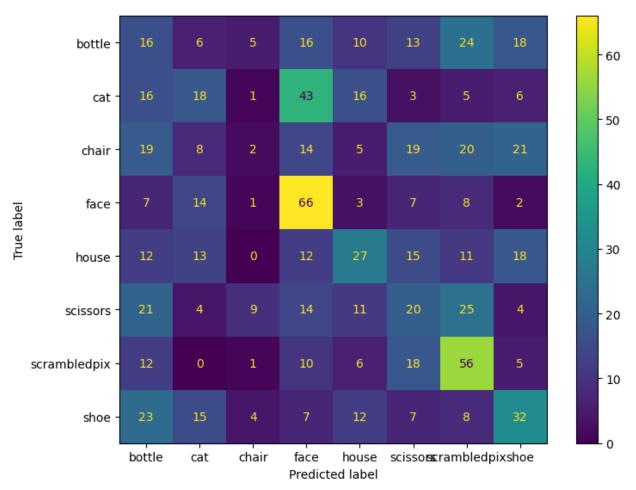
```
# Create masker for FFA:
mask_face = haxby_dataset.mask_face[0]
masker_ffa = NiftiMasker(mask_img=mask_face, standardize=True)

# Create masker for PPA:
mask_house = haxby_dataset.mask_house[0]
masker_ppa = NiftiMasker(mask_img=mask_house, standardize=True)

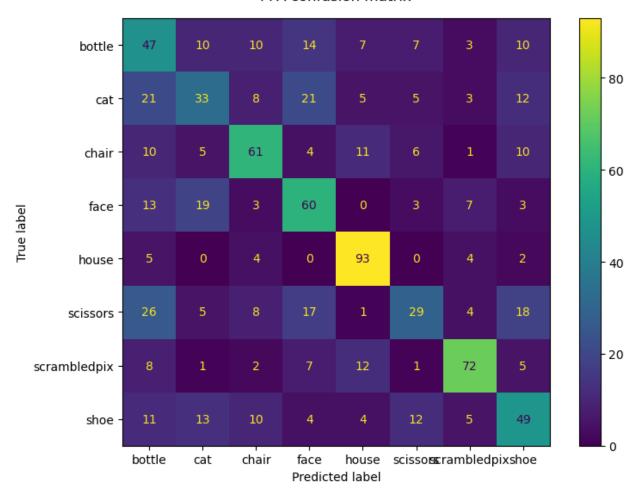
# FFA
# Initialize SVM and outer/inner CVs:
classifier = LinearSVC()
```

```
cv inner = KFold(n splits = 11, random state = None, shuffle = False)
cv outer = KFold(n splits = 12, random state = None, shuffle = False)
# Set up parameter grid:
param grid = \{'C': [1e-2, 1e-1, 1]\}
# Initialize GridSearchCV estimator:
estimator = GridSearchCV(estimator = classifier,
                         param grid = param grid,
                         cv = cv inner)
# Generate predictions using cross val predict:
ffa pred = cross val predict(estimator,
masker ffa.fit transform(func task),
                         stimuli task,
                         cv = cv outer,
                         groups = runs task)
# Print accuracy score and plot confusion matrix:
ffa score = accuracy score(stimuli task, ffa pred)
print(f'accuracy score: {ffa_score}')
cm = confusion matrix(stimuli task, ffa pred)
fig,ax = plt.subplots(figsize = (8,6))
ConfusionMatrixDisplay(cm, display_labels = categories).plot(ax=ax)
plt.suptitle('FFA confusion matrix')
plt.tight layout()
accuracy score: 0.274305555555556
```

FFA confusion matrix



PPA confusion matrix



Problem 2: Representational similarity analysis

In this problem, we'll apply representational similarity analysis (RSA) to the human fMRI dataset from Kriegeskorte et al., 2008. We'll begin by loading in the ROI data and labels.

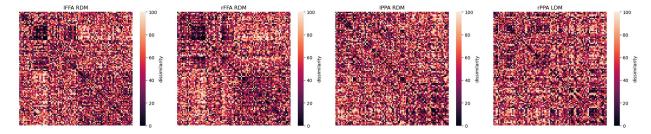
We provide a rank_percentile function for visualizing RDMs in a way that more closely matches the paper.

```
from scipy.stats import rankdata

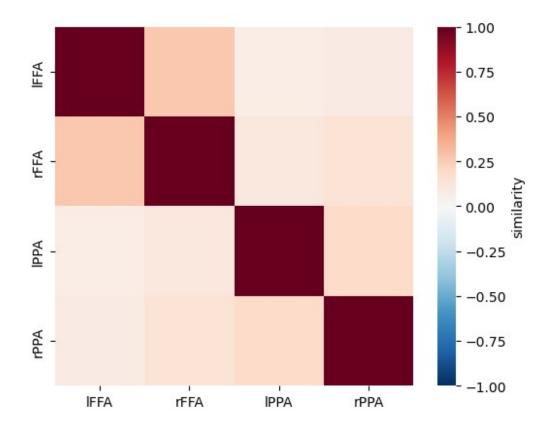
def rank_percentile(a):
    return rankdata(a) / len(a) * 100
```

First, compute RDMs for the 'lffA', 'rffA', 'lPPA', and 'rPPA' ROIs for subject 'TI' using correlation distance. Here, we recommend z-soring each voxel across samples prior to computing the pairwise dissimilarities. Plot the RDMs for each ROI using the rank_percentile function provided above.

```
# Plot ROI RDMs for subject TI:
from scipy.stats import zscore
from scipy.spatial.distance import pdist, squareform
# z-score
lFFA = zscore(roi data['TI']['lFFA'])
rFFA = zscore(roi_data['TI']['rFFA'])
lPPA = zscore(roi data['TI']['lPPA'])
rPPA = zscore(roi data['TI']['rPPA'])
# compute pairwise distances
rdm lFFA = pdist(lFFA, metric = 'correlation')
rdm rFFA = pdist(rFFA, metric = 'correlation')
rdm lPPA = pdist(lPPA, metric = 'correlation')
rdm_rPPA = pdist(rPPA, metric = 'correlation')
rdms = {'lfFA RDM': rdm lfFA,
        'rFFA RDM': rdm rFFA,
        'lPPA RDM': rdm lPPA,
        'rPPA LDM': rdm rPPA}
# plot RDMs
vmin = 0
vmax = 1.3
fig, axs = plt.subplots(\frac{1}{4}, figsize=(\frac{20}{4}))
for rdm, ax in zip(rdms, axs):
```



RSA allows us to compare the representational geometries of different ROIs. Compute the correlation between each pair of the four ROIs. Plot this similarity matrix. Which ROIs have the most similar representational geometries?

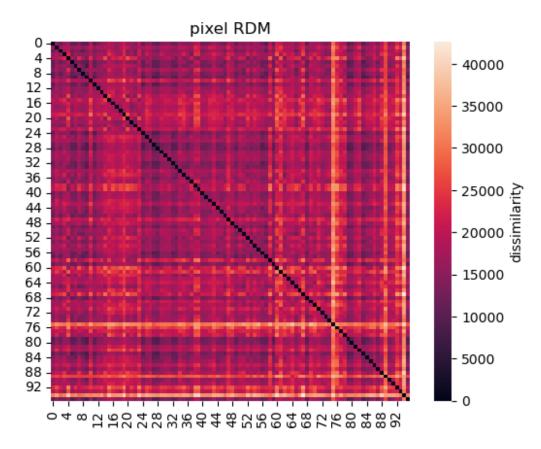


Stack all four ROIs to create a single combined ROI for each subject 'SN' and 'TI'. What is the Spearman correlation between 'SN''s and 'TI''s representational geometries?

```
# Combine SN and TI ROIs into single VT ROI and compute RDMs:
from scipy.stats import spearmanr
subject = 'TI'
ti_vt = np.column_stack([roi_data[subject][roi] for roi in
roi_data[subject]])
rdm_ti_vt = pdist(zscore(ti_vt, axis = 0), metric = 'correlation')
subject = 'SN'
sn_vt = np.column_stack([roi_data[subject][roi] for roi in
roi_data[subject]])
rdm_sn_vt = pdist(zscore(sn_vt, axis = 0), metric = 'correlation')
# Compute correlations between SN and TI's VT RDMs:
res = spearmanr(rdm_ti_vt, rdm_sn_vt)
res.statistic
0.394897619062583
```

We can test different "model" RDMs according to how well they approximate a given neural. Here, for the sake of brevity, we'll construct an extremely simple RDM capturing low-level visual structure. Flatten each image file into a one-dimensional array of pixel values (across three color channels). Next, compute the pairwise Euclidean distances between these image vectors to

construct an RDM capture low-level visual similarities. Plot this pixel RDM and compute it's Spearman correlation with 'TI's VT RDM?



Problem 3: Voxelwise encoding analysis

In this problem, we'll return to *encoding analysis*, using regularized regression and out-of-sample prediction in individual voxels. We will use word embeddings derived from the natural language processing (NLP) model GloVe to map semantic encoding onto the brain. You can

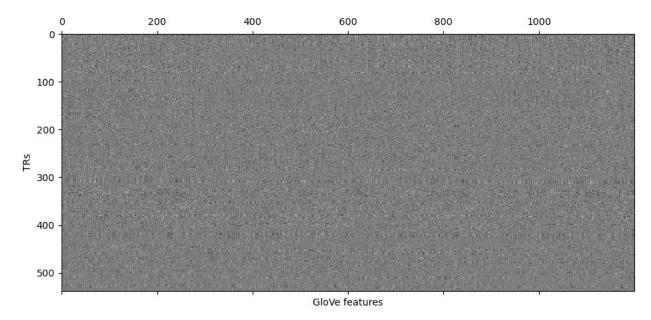
simply load the story_transcript.txt file in a text editor to visualize the transcript for the spoken story by Carol Daniel. Each line of this file corresponds to a TR in the fMRI data. Next, we extracted word embeddings from GloVe for each word in each TR. For TRs containing multiple words, we averaged the embeddings. Finally, we horizontally stacked the embeddings at lags of 2, 3, 4, and 5 TRs (3, 4.5, 6, and 7.5 seconds relative to word onset) to account variable hemodynamic lags (this is effectively a finite impulse response model). Inspect and interpret the shape of the word embeddings, and visualize this matrix.

```
# Load and visualize word embeddings:
transcript_fn = open('story_transcript.txt')
transcript = transcript_fn.read()

embeddings = np.load('story_embeddings.npy')
plt.matshow(zscore(embeddings, axis = 0), cmap = 'binary_r')
plt.xlabel('GloVe features')
plt.ylabel('TRs')

print(embeddings.shape)

(538, 1200)
```



We used fMRI to measure a subject's brain activity while they listened to the spoken story. Here, to reduce computational demands, we have spatially downsampled the fMRI data using an atlas containing 400 parcels. That is, for each parcel, we averaged the voxel time series within that parcel. Rather than fitting encoding models to tens of thousands of voxels, we'll fit our encoding model to each of the 400 parcels. Load in the story_parcels.npy dataset as well as the story_atlas.nii.gz NIfTI image from which the parcels were derived (for later visualization).

```
# Load in parcel time series:
parcel = np.load('story_parcels.npy')
```

```
# Load in the Schaefer 400-parcel atlas:
import nibabel as nib
atlas_nii = nib.load('story_atlas.nii.gz')
atlas_img = atlas_nii.get_fdata()
```

Our word embedding "model" is much wider than the number of samples, so we'll need to use regularization and out-of-sample prediction to mitigate overfitting. We'll use ridge regression to fit encoding models to predict the parcel time series from the word embeddings. First, set up an split-half outer cross-validator using KFold with n_splits=2; next, set up an inner cross-validator using KFold with n_splits=5 to perform grid search for the alpha hyperparameter using 5-fold cross-validation within each training set of the otuer loop. Initialize your RidgeCV estimator with the inner cross-validator and the following grid of alphas: alphas = [0.1, 1.0, 10.0, 100.0, 1000.0, 10000.0]. For each training and testing split of the other cross-validation loop, fit the ridge model on the training set of embeddings and parcel time series, and generate predicted parcel time series from the test embeddings. Compile these predicted parcel time series for model evaluation in the next step:

```
# Set up outer/inner cross-validators:
from sklearn.model_selection import KFold
cv_outer = KFold(n_splits = 2)
cv_inner = KFold(n_splits = 5)

# Initialize RidgeCV with alpha grid and inner CV:
from sklearn.linear_model import RidgeCV
alphas = [0.1, 1.0, 10.0, 100.0, 1000.0, 10000.0]
ridge = RidgeCV(alphas = alphas, cv = cv_inner, scoring = 'r2')

# Loop through outer CV loop, fit model, generate predictions:
func_predicted = []
for train,test in cv_outer.split(parcel):
    ridge.fit(embeddings[train], parcel[train])

    predicted = ridge.predict(embeddings[test])
    func_predicted = np.vstack(func_predicted)
```

To evaluate our encoding model's predictions, correlate the predicted parcel time series with the actual parcel time series for each parcel.

Finally, to visualize the performance of our semantic encoding model on the brain, we need to use the atlast NIfTI image to convert from parcels back to the original brain image. You can start by creating an empty brain image (i.e. zeros) the size of the atlas image. Next, loop through each parcel and insert the prediction scores (i.e. correlations between actual and predicted parcel time series) into all voxels where the atlas correponds to that parcel label. Convert this image to a NIfTI image and visualize with plot_stat_map; you may want to set a particular vmax and use a threshold to exclude voxels with poor prediction performance for the sake of visualization.

```
# Create an empty brain image and populate with parcelwise performance
values:
from nilearn.plotting import plot stat map
r img = np.zeros(atlas img.shape)
for i, p in enumerate(np.unique(atlas img)[1:]):
    r_img[atlas_img == p] = r_parcels[i]
# Convert to NIfTI image for visualization with Nilearn:
r_nii = nib.NiftilImage(r_img, atlas_nii.affine, atlas_nii.header)
# Plot correlations to visualize superior temporal cortex:
vmax = .4
threshold = .1
plot_stat_map(r_nii, cmap='RdYlBu_r', vmax=vmax, threshold=threshold,
              title='encoding model performance: superior temporal
cortex', cut coords=(-55, -24, 9)
# Plot correlations to visualize posterior medial cortex:
plot_stat_map(r_nii, cmap='RdYlBu_r', vmax=vmax, threshold=threshold,
              title = 'encoding model performance: posterior medial
cortex', cut coords=(-5, -60, 30)
<nilearn.plotting.displays. slicers.OrthoSlicer at 0x7feb4b9e5190>
```

