Testing in unsupervised learning (ICA, really), with applications to brain imaging

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Introduction

Consistency over datasets Testing the mixing matrix Testing independent components Conclusion Abstract Independent component analysis Importance of testing

Abstract

- Theory of independent component analysis (ICA) almost exclusively about estimation
- Here, we propose fundamental testing methods
- Which independent components are reliable/significant?
- Test can be about the mixing matrix or the component values
- We propose a null hypothesis based on the idea of intersubject consistency

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Abstract Independent component analysis Importance of testing

Independent component analysis

- ICA is widely used for analyzing neuroimaging data
- One of the main methods in resting-state analysis
- Finds easily resting-state networks in fMRI (Beckmann et al 2005, Van de Ven 2005), recently similar results in MEG (Hyvärinen et al 2010, Brookes et al 2011)
- Decomposes data matrix X into a mixing matrix A and component matrix S

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{AS}$$

 Maximizing independence or non-gaussianity of the rows of S.



(Beckmann et al, 2005)

Abstract Independent component analysis Importance of testing

Importance of testing independent components

- How do we know that an estimated component is not just a random effect?
- ICA algorithms give a fixed number of components and do not tell which ones are reliable (statistically significant)
- Algorithmic artifacts also possible (local minima)
- In general, any estimation method should be complemented by a testing method
- Previously, testing zeros in the mixing matrix was prosed by Shimizu et al. (2006), but often zeros are not priviledged.

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Testing using intersubject or intersession consistency

- We propose the following approach:
 - ► We assume we have a number of similar datasets available
 - Do ICA separately on each of them
 - A component is significant if it appears in two or more datasets in a sufficiently similar form
- Different datasets can come from different subjects, or sessions.
- Similarity could be about components in S or columns of mixing matrix A
- Key question: How to quantify the case of complete randomness, i.e. null hypothesis

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Null hypothesis Defining similarities and significances Clustering Corrections for multiple testing Simulations Results on MEG data

Testing the mixing matrix: Null hypothesis

► ICA is a rotation of whitened data X: after whitening, we have

 $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{S}$ (1)

- Assume all the subjects/sessions can be whitened using the same matrix.
- Under null hypothesis, spatial patterns of different subjects are "completely random" rotations in the PCA subspace (uniformly distributed in the set of orthogonal matrices).
- This models both the actual randomness in the data (differences in brain anatomy) and errors in ICA estimation.

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Definition and significance of similarities

- Consider columns of the mixing matrix p_{jl} of components j and dataset l.
- Compute similarities of spatial patterns using Mahalanobis metric

$$\gamma_{ij,kl} = \frac{|\mathbf{p}_{ik}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{p}_{jl}|}{\sqrt{\mathbf{p}_{ik}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{p}_{ik}} \sqrt{\mathbf{p}_{jl}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{p}_{jl}}}$$
(2)

with $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{M}}$ is (stabilized) inverse of covariance matrix of $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{p}}$

Under null hypothesis, marginal distribution of γ can be obtained in closed form: e.g.

$$t = \frac{\gamma\sqrt{d-1}}{\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}} \tag{3}$$

follows a Student's t-distribution with d = 1 DOF. $a \to a = 2$

Null hypothesis Defining similarities and significances **Clustering** Corrections for multiple testing Simulations Results on MEG data

Clustering

- Once significances have been computed, use them in clustering
- Prune connections (similarities) which are not significant
- No more than one component per subject
- Similar to hierarchical clustering
 ⇒ Single-linkage vs.
 complete-linkage strategies



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Corrections for multiple testing

- We are testing over many connections, so false positive rates have to be corrected
- We use two different corrections
- ► For initial creation of cluster: Bonferroni correction
 - Probability of having any false positive clusters $< \alpha$.
 - We don't want to have any false positive clusters
- ► For adding more components to cluster: false discovery rate
 - Percentage of false positive components $< \alpha$.
 - A few false positive components is not too serious, and we don't want to be too conservative.
 - Can be computed by Simes' procedure, or using a simple formula:

$$\alpha_{corr} = \frac{\alpha}{\text{number of subjects}} \tag{4}$$

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Simulations on artificial data



False positive rates and false discovery rates for simulated data. The desired rates were set to 5%.

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Testing ICs: results



11 subjects, PCA dimension 64, $\alpha =$ 0.05, 43 clusters found

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Testing in unsupervised learning (ICA, really), with applications

Spatial ICA Empirical approach to null distribution Results on fMRI data Computational complexity

Testing independent components themselves

 Spatial ICA: scans at different time points are linear sums of "source images"



Almost always used in fMRI



- ► Can also be useful with MEG (Ramkumar et al, 2011)
- The independent components (rows of S) are similar over datasets in X = AS

Spatial ICA Empirical approach to null distribution Results on fMRI data Computational complexity

Empirical approach to null distribution

- Same basic approach:
 - ▶ ICA separately on multiple datasets k, l (subjects/sessions)
 - Compute similarities $\gamma = \mathbf{S}_k \mathbf{S}_l^T$
 - Null hypothesis: random orthogonal rotation
- But: Independent components contain a lot of noise
 ⇒ Similarities necessarily small
- Null distribution modelled empirically
- For random orthogonal matrices, we have

$$\gamma^2 \sim \text{Beta}(1/2,\beta)$$
 (5)

where β equals the dimension of the space.

• Here, we estimate β by fitting to the empirical distribution

Spatial ICA Empirical approach to null distribution Results on fMRI data Computational complexity

Resting- state networks on fMRI data (preliminary)





- 11 subjects
- PCA dimension 75
- ▶ α = 0.001
- 56 clusters found

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Spatial ICA Empirical approach to null distribution Results on fMRI data Computational complexity

Computational complexity

- Main difficulty is memory: We need to store similarity matrix
- This can be reduced by storing just the strongest similarity from each components
- We can handle 100-200 subjects with 100-200 components on a desktop computer



Spatial ICA Empirical approach to null distribution Results on fMRI data Computational complexity

Special bonus slide for Algodan

- The method could be applied in general unsupervised learning
- Assume the features live in a set of finite volume (compact), e.g. the unit sphere
- Then we can define the null hypothesis
- Consider e.g. clustering, where data is normalized to unit sphere
- Any data set can be divided into n subsets and learning can be performed for each data set
- Maybe you can apply this testing for your own method?

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Conclusion

- We introduces methods for testing of which independent components are reliable, i.e. statistically significant
- We can test columns of the mixing matrix, or the values of the independent components themselves
- Based on doing ICA separately on many datasets, i.e. different subjects or sessions
- Null hypothesis defined as orthogonal rotations in whitened space
- Null distribution obtained analytically for mixing matrix case Empirical approximation needed for ICs
- Application on MEG and fMRI promising

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