

# Dynamic Causal Modelling for fMRI

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Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging London

## **Overview**

#### Brain connectivity: types & definitions

Anatomical connectivity
Functional connectivity
Effective connectivity

#### Dynamic causal models (DCMs)

Neuronal model Hemodynamic model

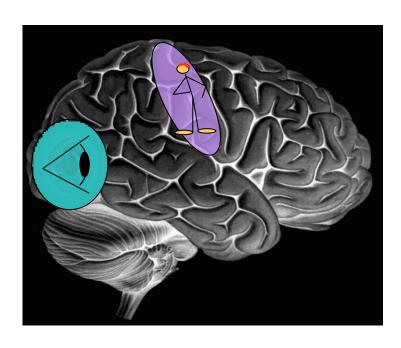
Estimation: Bayesian framework

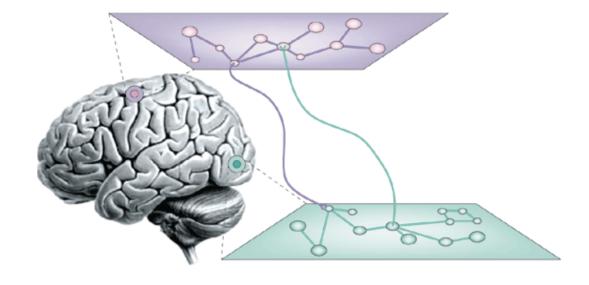
Applications & extensions of DCM to fMRI data

# **Principles of Organisation**

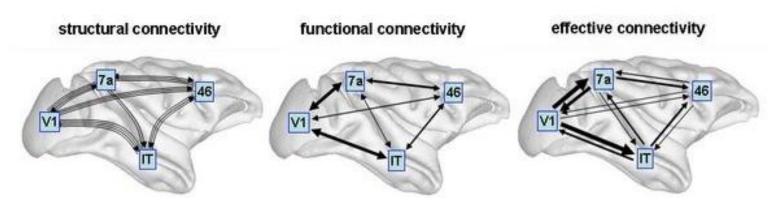
Functional specialization

Functional integration





## Structural, functional & effective connectivity



Sporns 2007, Scholarpedia

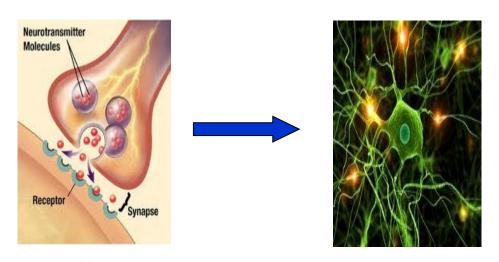
- anatomical/structural connectivity
  - = presence of axonal connections
- functional connectivity
  - = statistical dependencies between regional time series
- effective connectivity
  - causal (directed) influences between neurons or neuronal populations

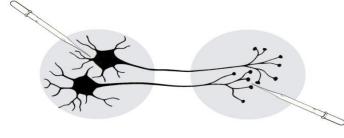
## **Anatomical connectivity**

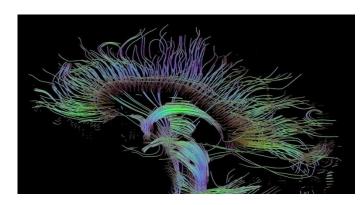
# Definition: presence of axonal connections

- neuronal communication via synaptic contacts
- Measured with
  - tracing techniques

diffusion tensor imaging (DTI)

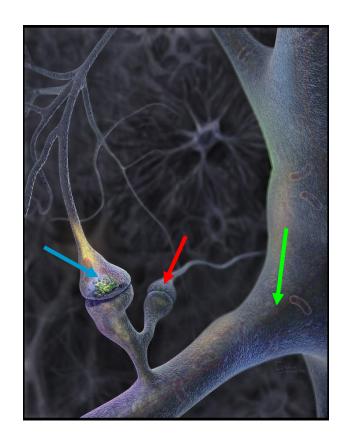






## Knowing anatomical connectivity is not enough...

- Context-dependent recruiting of connections :
  - Local functions depend on network activity
- Connections show synaptic plasticity
  - change in the structure and transmission properties of a synapse
  - even at short timescales
- → Look at functional and effective connectivity



# Functional connectivity

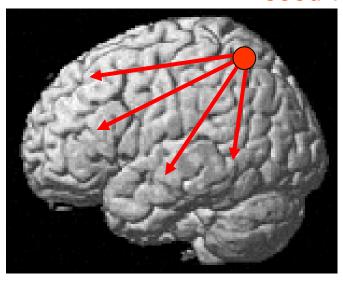
Definition: statistical dependencies between regional time series

- Seed voxel correlation analysis
- Coherence analysis
- Eigen-decomposition (PCA, SVD)
- Independent component analysis (ICA)
- any technique describing statistical dependencies amongst regional time series

## Seed-voxel correlation analyses

- hypothesis-driven choice of a seed voxel
- extract reference time series
- voxel-wise correlation with time series from all other voxels in the brain

seed voxel



## Pros & Cons of functional connectivity analysis

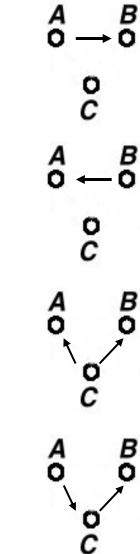
#### Pros:

 useful when we have no experimental control over the system of interest and no model of what caused the data (e.g. sleep, hallucinations, etc.)

#### Cons:

- interpretation of resulting patterns is difficult / arbitrary
- no mechanistic insight
- usually suboptimal for situations where we have a priori knowledge / experimental control

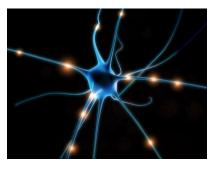
→ Effective connectivity



# Effective connectivity

Definition: causal (directed) influences between neurons or neuronal populations

In vivo and in vitro stimulation and recording

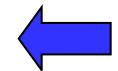


- Models of causal interactions among neuronal populations
  - explain *regional* effects in terms of *interregional* connectivity

# Some models for computing effective connectivity from fMRI data

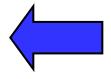
- Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)
   McIntosh et al. 1991, 1994; Büchel & Friston 1997; Bullmore et al. 2000
- regression models

   (e.g. psycho-physiological interactions, PPIs)
   Friston et al. 1997



- Volterra kernels

   Friston & Büchel 2000
- Time series models (e.g. MAR, Granger causality)
   Harrison et al. 2003, Goebel et al. 2003
- Dynamic Causal Modelling (DCM) bilinear: Friston et al. 2003; nonlinear: Stephan et al. 2008

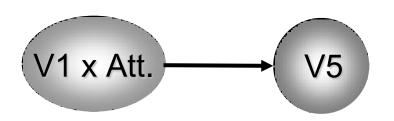


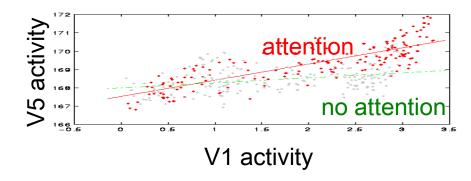
# Psycho(physiological)interaction (PPI)

 bilinear model of how the psychological context A changes the influence of area B on area C:

$$B \times A \rightarrow C$$

 A PPI corresponds to differences in regression slopes for different contexts.





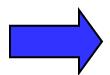
### **Pros & Cons of PPIs**

#### Pros:

- given a single source region, we can test for its context-dependent connectivity across the entire brain
- easy to implement

#### Cons:

- only allows to model contributions from a single area
- operates at the level of BOLD time series (SPM 99/2).
   SPM 5/8 deconvolves the BOLD signal to form the proper interaction term, and then reconvolves it.
- ignores time-series properties of the data



### Dynamic Causal Models

needed for more robust statements of effective connectivity.

## **Overview**

#### Brain connectivity: types & definitions

Anatomical connectivity
Functional connectivity
Effective connectivity

#### Dynamic causal models (DCMs)

Basic idea
Neuronal model
Hemodynamic model
Parameter estimation, priors & inference

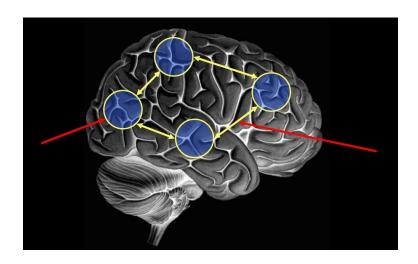
Applications & extensions of DCM to fMRI data

### Basics of Dynamic Causal Modelling

#### DCM allows us to look at how areas within a network interact:

Investigate functional integration & modulation of specific cortical pathways

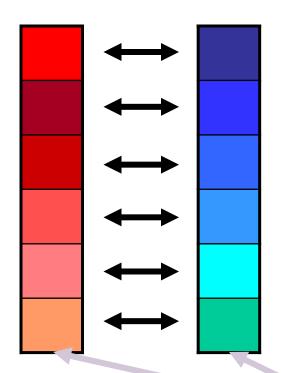
Temporal dependency of activity within and between areas (causality)

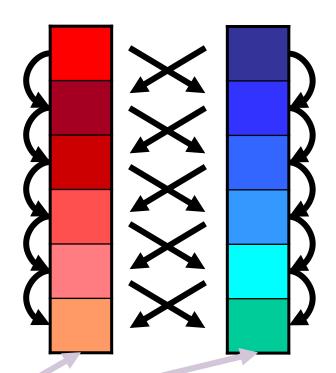


### Temporal dependence and causal relations

Seed voxel approach, PPI etc.

**Dynamic Causal Models** 





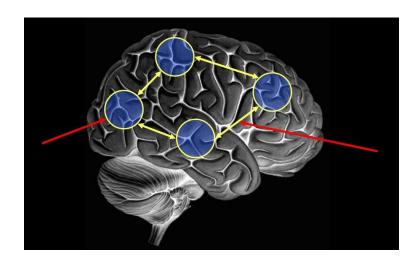
timeseries (neuronal activity)

### Basics of Dynamic Causal Modelling

#### DCM allows us to look at how areas within a network interact:

Investigate functional integration & modulation of specific cortical pathways

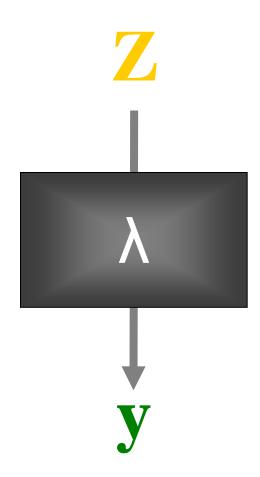
- Temporal dependency of activity within and between areas (causality)
- Separate neuronal activity from observed BOLD responses



### Basics of DCM: Neuronal and BOLD level

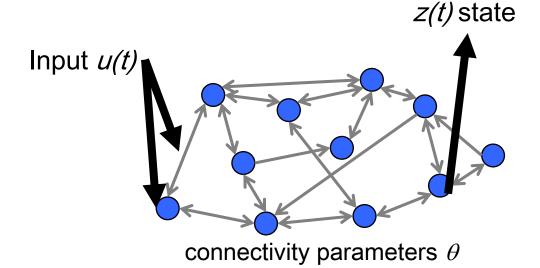
- Cognitive system is modelled at its underlying neuronal level (not directly accessible for fMRI).
- The modelled neuronal dynamics (Z) are transformed into area-specific BOLD signals (y) by a hemodynamic model (λ).

The aim of DCM is to estimate <u>parameters</u> at the <u>neuronal level</u> such that the modelled and measured BOLD signals are optimally similar.



# Neuronal systems are represented by differential equations

A <u>System</u> is a set of elements  $z_n(t)$  which interact in a spatially and temporally specific fashion



State changes of the system states are dependent on:

- the current state z
- external inputs u
- its connectivity  $\theta$
- time constants & delays

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = F(z, u, \theta)$$

# DCM parameters = rate constants

#### Generic solution to the ODEs in DCM:

$$\frac{dz_1}{dt} = -sz_1 \implies z_1(t) = z_1(0) \exp(-st), \qquad z_1(0) = 1$$

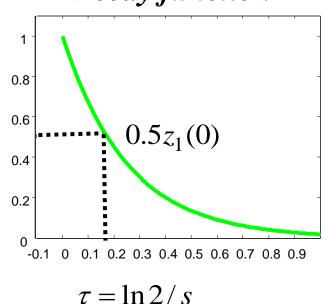
#### Half-life τ

$$z_1(\tau) = 0.5z_1(0)$$

$$= z_1(0) \exp(-s\tau)$$

$$s = \ln 2/\tau$$

#### Decay function

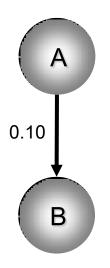


$$\tau = \ln 2/s$$

# DCM parameters = rate constants

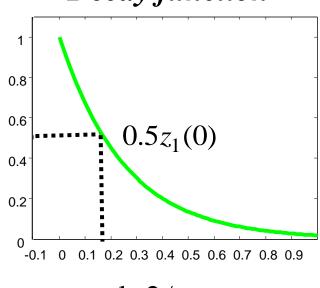
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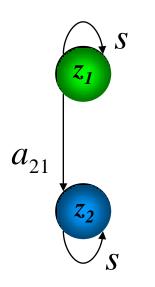
If A→B is 0.10 s<sup>-1</sup> this means that, per unit time, the increase in activity in B corresponds to 10% of the activity in A

#### Decay function



$$\tau = \ln 2/s$$

# Linear dynamics: 2 nodes



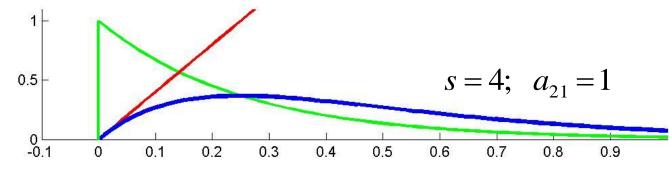
$$\dot{z}_1 = -sz_1$$

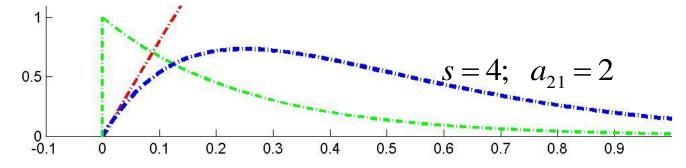
$$\dot{z}_2 = s(a_{21}z_1 - z_2)$$

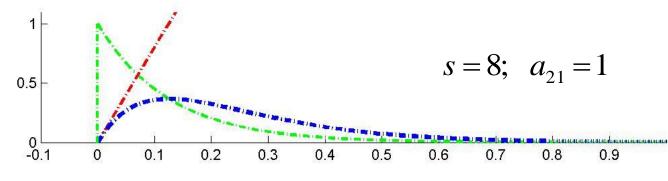
$$z_1(0) = 1$$
$$z_2(0) = 0$$

$$z_1(t) = \exp(-st)$$
$$z_2(t) = sa_{21}t \exp(-st)$$

$$a_{21} > 0$$

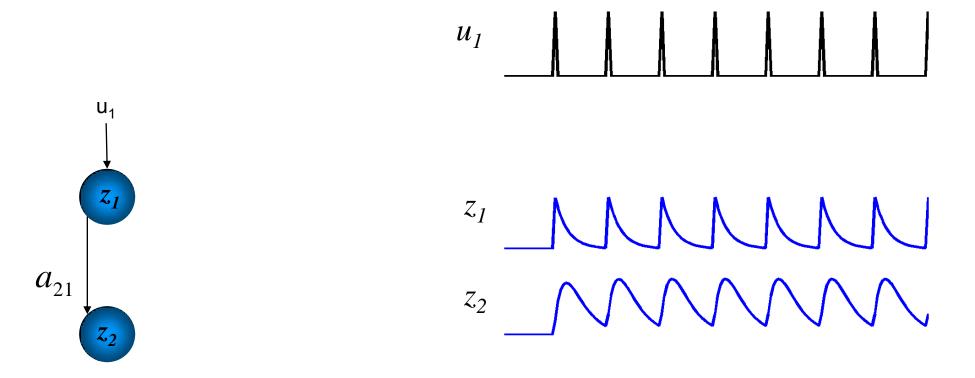








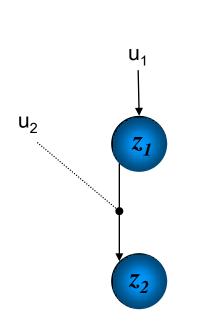
## Neurodynamics: 2 nodes with input

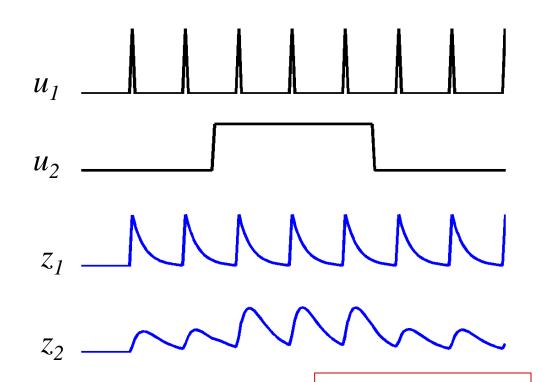


$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}_1 \\ \dot{z}_2 \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ a_{21} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_1 \qquad a_{21} > 0$$

activity in  $z_2$  is coupled to  $z_1$  via coefficient  $a_{21}$ 

## Neurodynamics: positive modulation





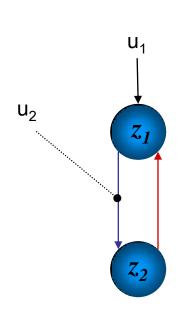
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}_1 \\ \dot{z}_2 \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ a_{21} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} + u_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ b_{21}^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_1$$

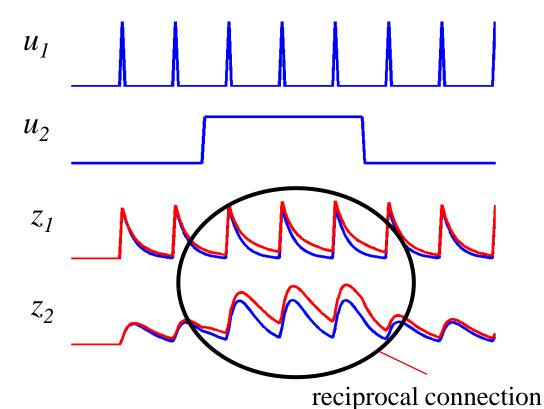
index, not squared

$$b_{21}^2 > 0$$

modulatory input  $u_2$  activity through the coupling  $a_{21}$ 

## Neurodynamics: reciprocal connections



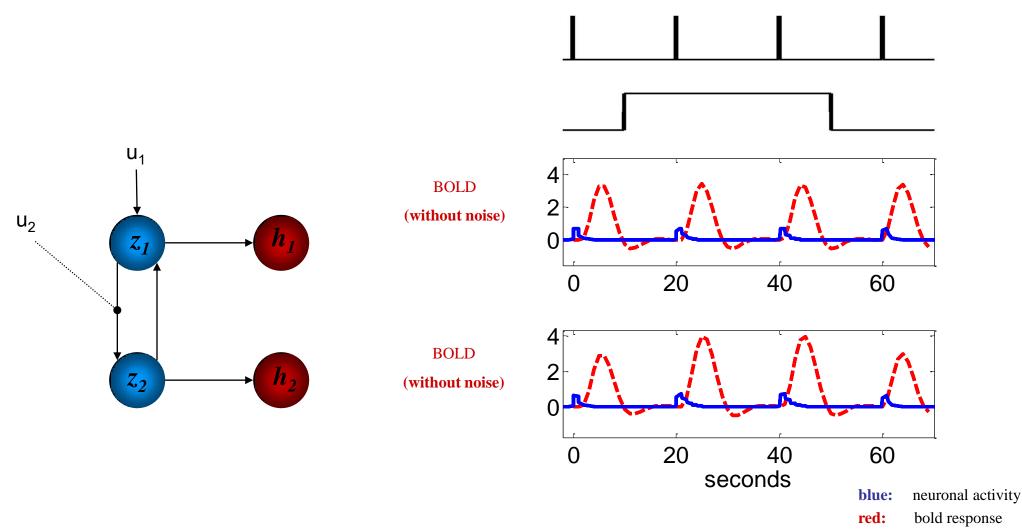


 $\begin{bmatrix} \dot{z}_1 \\ \dot{z}_2 \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} + u_2 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ b_{21}^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} c \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_1$ 

disclosed by u<sub>2</sub>

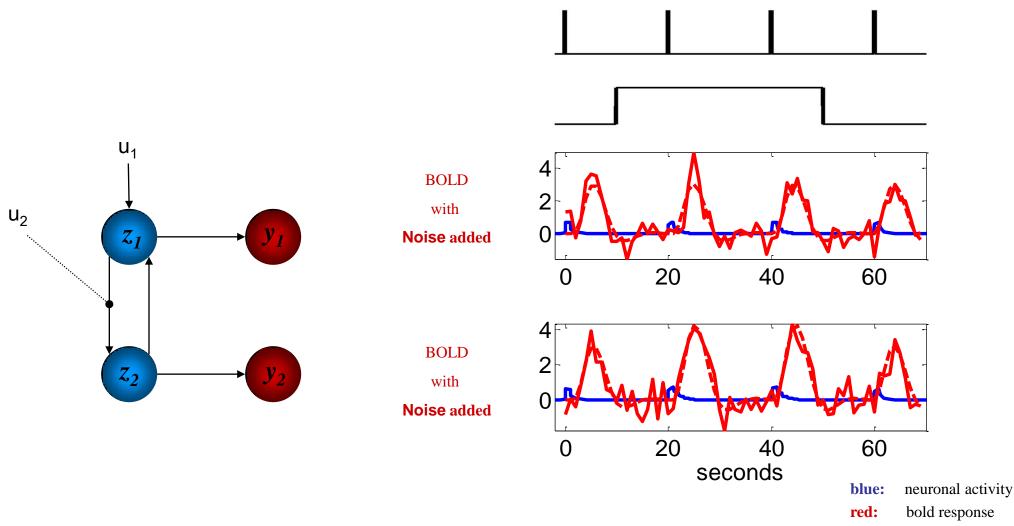
$$a_{12}, a_{21}, b_{21}^2 > 0$$

# Haemodynamics: reciprocal connections



 $h(u,\theta)$  represents the BOLD response (balloon model) to input

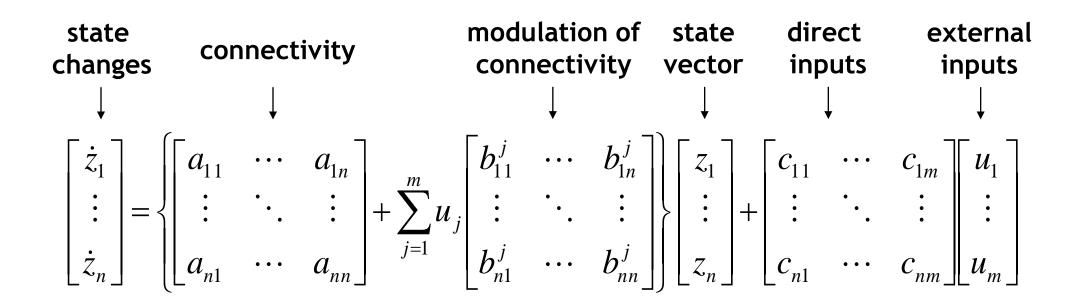
# Haemodynamics: reciprocal connections



y represents simulated observation of BOLD response, i.e. includes noise

$$y = h(u, \theta) + e$$

# Bilinear state equation in DCM for fMRI



$$\dot{z} = (A + \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j B^j) z + Cu$$

m drv inputs

m mod inputs

*n* regions

# Conceptual overview

Input

activity <

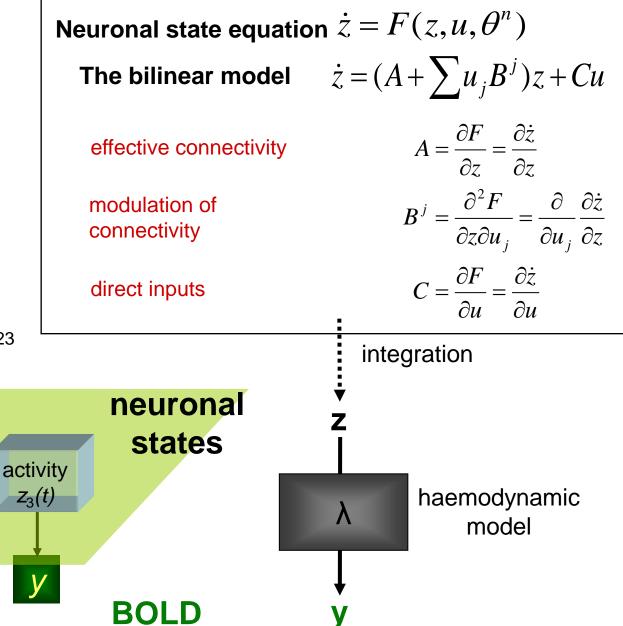
 $Z_2(t)$ 

a<sub>12</sub>

activity

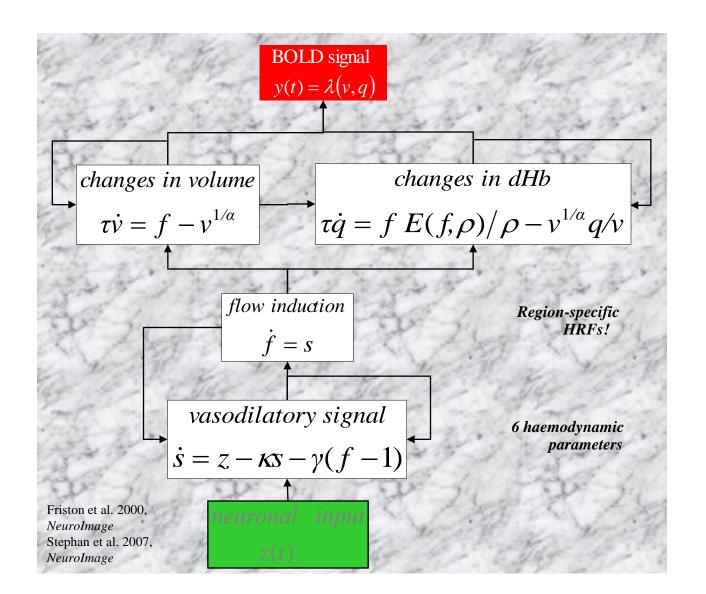
 $Z_1(t)$ 

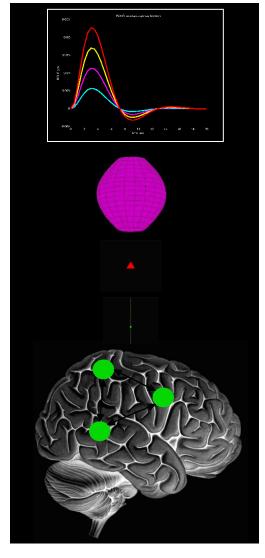
b<sub>23</sub>



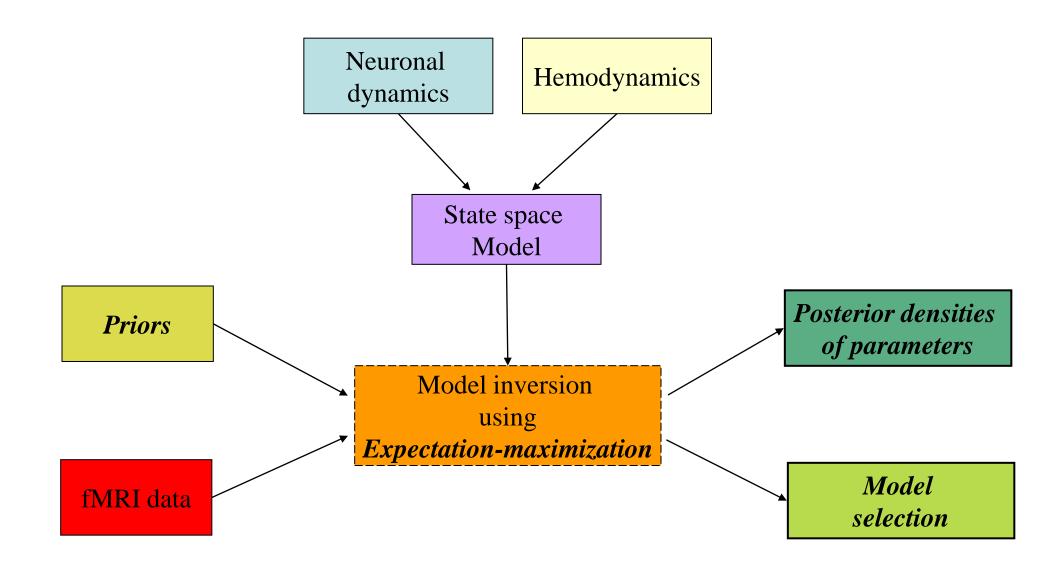
Friston et al. 2003, Neurolmage

# The hemodynamic "Balloon" model

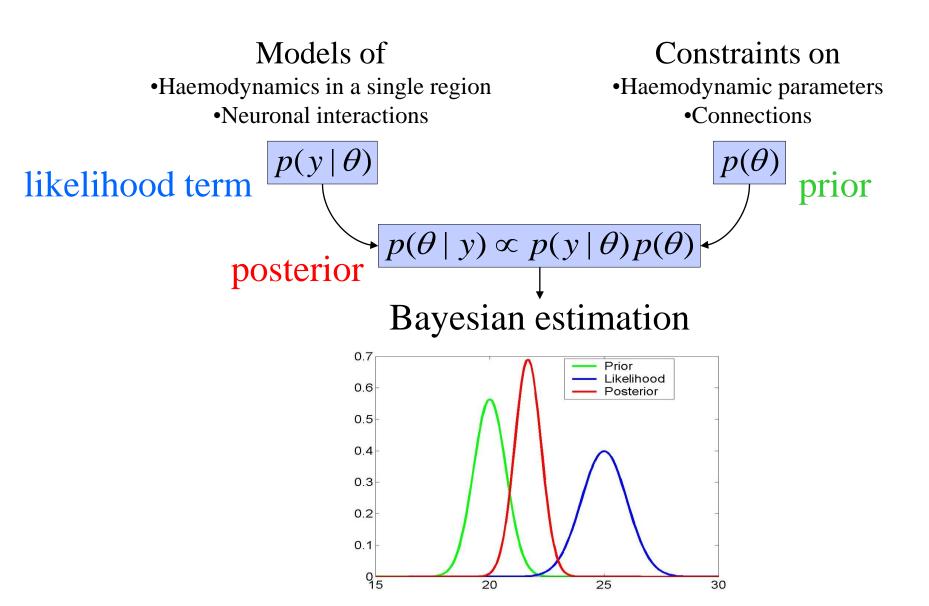




# DCM roadmap

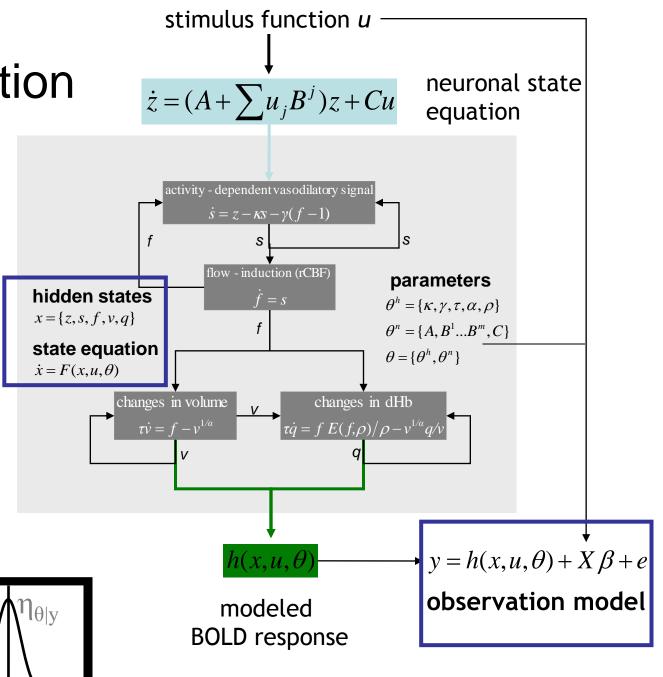


# Estimation: Bayesian framework

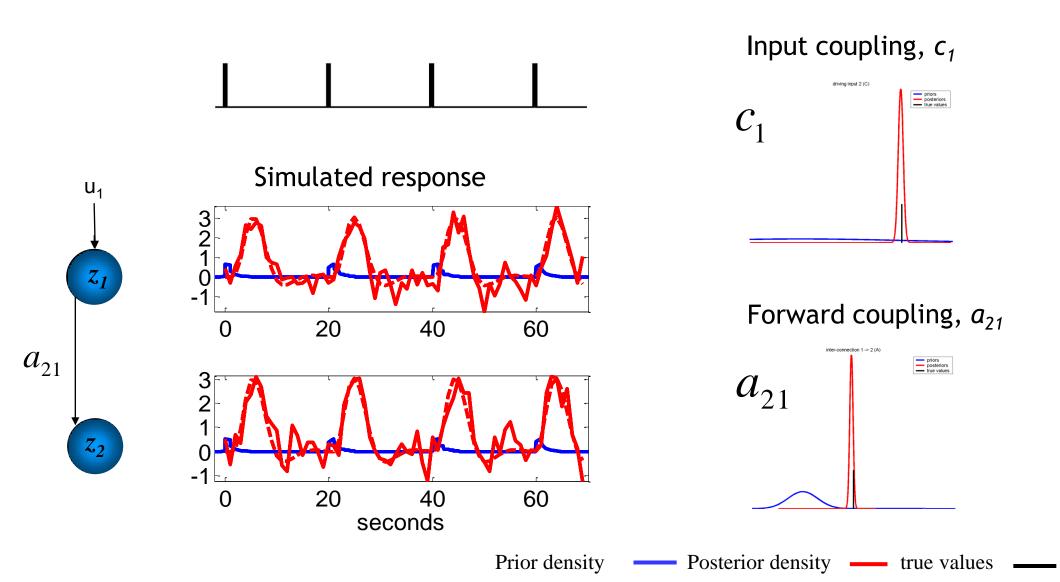


# Overview: parameter estimation

- Specify model (neuronal and haemodynamic level)
- Make it an observation model by adding measurement error *e* and confounds *X* (e.g. drift).
- Bayesian parameter estimation using expectation-maximization.
- Result: (Normal) posterior parameter distributions, given by mean  $\eta_{\theta/y}$  and Covariance  $C_{\theta/y}$ .



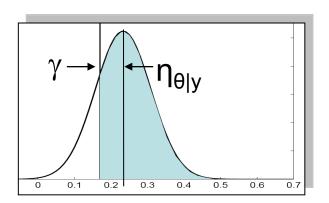
# Parameter estimation: an example



# Inference about DCM parameters

#### Bayesian single subject analysis

- The model parameters are distributions that have a mean  $\eta_{\theta/y}$  and covariance  $C_{\theta/y}$ .
  - Use of the cumulative normal distribution to test the probability that a certain parameter is above a chosen threshold γ:



#### Classical frequentist test across groups

- Test summary statistic: mean  $\eta_{ heta/
  u}$ 
  - One-sample t-test: Parameter > 0?
  - Paired t-test:parameter 1 > parameter 2?
  - rmANOVA: e.g. in case of multiple sessions per subject

Bayesian parameter averaging

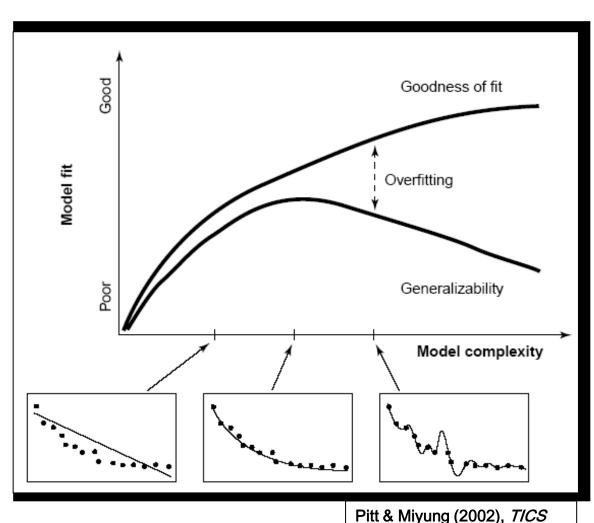
# Model comparison and selection

Given competing hypotheses, which model is the best?



 $\log p(y \mid m) = accuracy(m)$ complexity(m)

$$B_{ij} = \frac{p(y \mid m=i)}{p(y \mid m=j)}$$



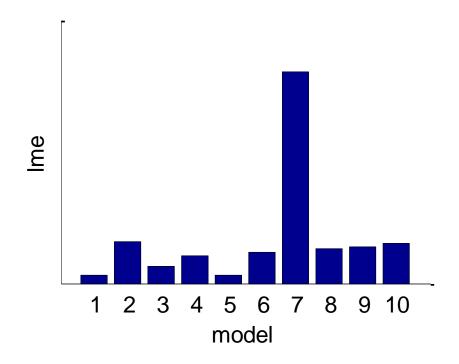
# Inference on model space

Model evidence: The optimal balance of fit and complexity



### Comparing models

Which is the best model?



## Inference on model space

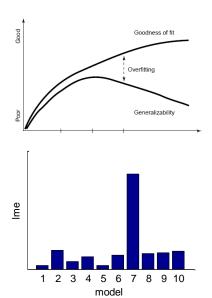
Model evidence: The optimal balance of fit and complexity

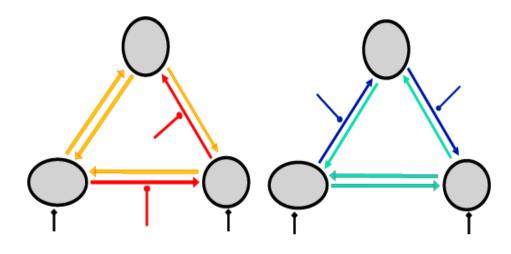
### Comparing models

Which is the best model?

### Comparing families of models

- What type of model is best?
  - Feedforward vs feedback
  - Parallel vs sequential processing
  - With or without modulation





## Inference on model space

Model evidence: The optimal balance of fit and complexity

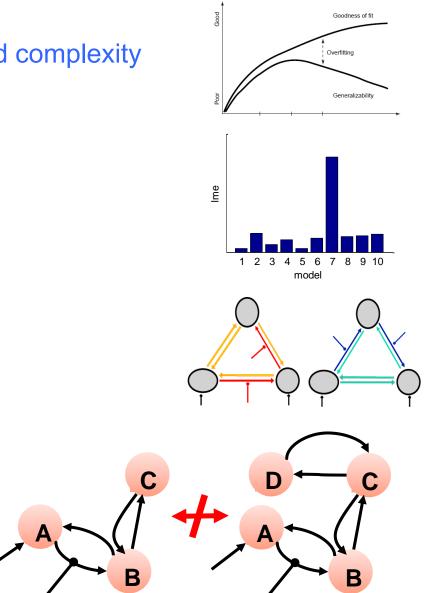
### Comparing models

Which is the best model?

### Comparing families of models

- What type of model is best?
  - Feedforward vs feedback
  - Parallel vs sequential processing
  - With or without modulation

Only compare models with the same data



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### Dynamic causal models (DCMs)

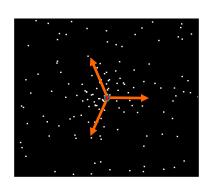
Neuronal model Hemodynamic model

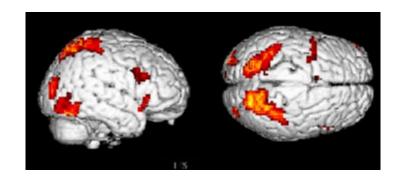
Estimation: Bayesian framework

Applications & extensions of DCM to fMRI data

# Attention to motion in the visual system

We used this model to assess the site of *attention* modulation during visual motion processing in an fMRI paradigm reported by Büchel & Friston.

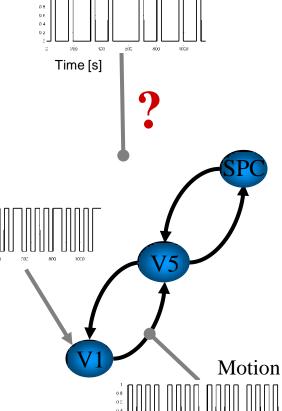






- observe static dots
- observe moving dots
- task on moving dots
- + photic
- + motion
- + attention

- $\rightarrow$  V1
- $\rightarrow$  V5
- → V5 + parietal cortex

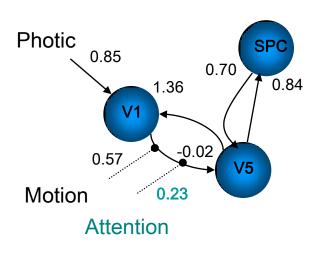


Attention

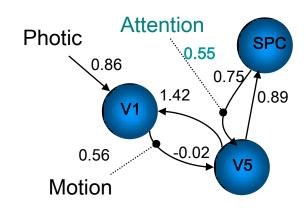
Photic

# Comparison of two simple models

Model 1: attentional modulation of V1→V5



Model 2: attentional modulation of SPC→V5



Bayesian model selection:

Model 1 better than model 2

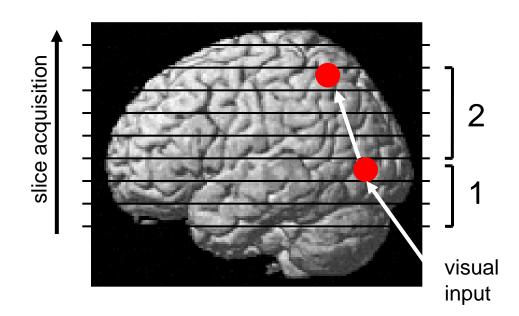
$$\log p(y | m_1) >> \log p(y | m_2)$$

→ Decision for model 1:

in this experiment, attention primarily modulates V1→V5

## **Extension I: Slice timing model**

potential timing problem in DCM:
 temporal shift between regional time series because of multi-slice acquisition



### • Solution:

Modelling of (known) slice timing of each area.

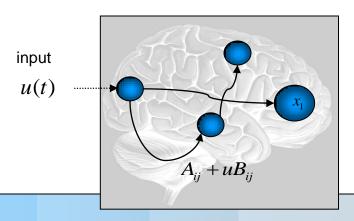
Slice timing extension now allows for any slice timing differences!

Long TRs (> 2 sec) no longer a limitation.

(Kiebel et al., 2007)

### **Extension II: Two-state model**

#### Single-state DCM

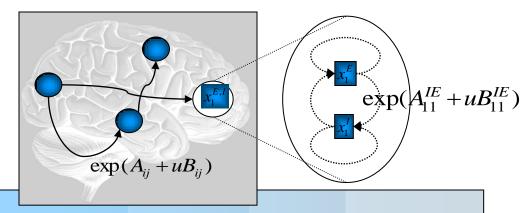


$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = (A + uB)x + Cu$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{N1} & \cdots & A_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \quad x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\dot{z} = Az + \sum u_{j}B_{j}z + Cu$$

#### Two-state DCM



$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = (AB^u)x + Cu$$

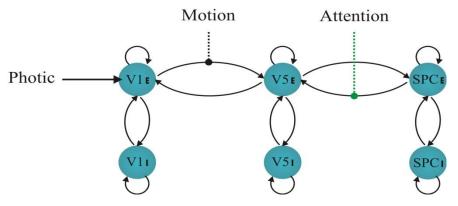
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -e^{A_{11}^{EE}} & -e^{A_{11}^{EI}} & \cdots & e^{A_{1N}} & 0 \\ e^{A_{11}^{IE}} & -e^{A_{11}^{II}} & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ e^{A_{N1}} & 0 & & -e^{A_{NN}^{EE}} & -e^{A_{NN}^{IE}} \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & e^{A_{NN}^{EE}} & -e^{A_{NN}^{IE}} \end{bmatrix} \quad x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^E \\ x_1^I \\ x_1^I \\ \vdots \\ x_N^E \\ x_N^I \end{bmatrix}$$

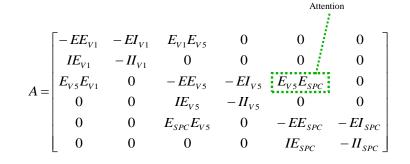
Extrinsic (between-region) coupling

Intrinsic (within-region) coupling

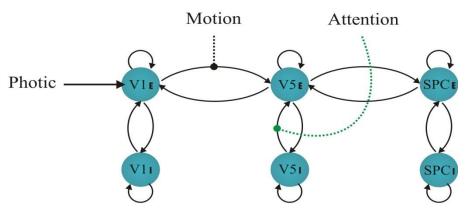
#### Model 1 - BCW

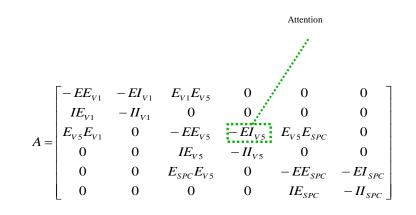
### DCM for Büchel & Friston



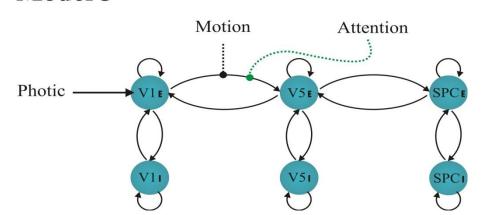


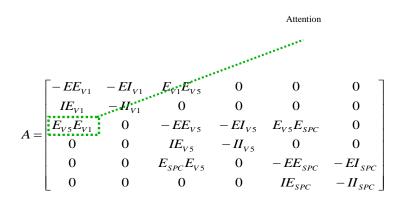
#### Model 2 - Intr





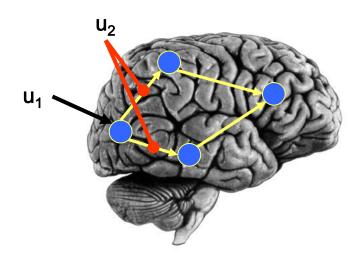
### Model 3 - FWD





## **Extension III: Nonlinear DCM for fMRI**

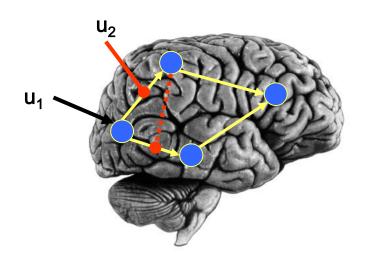
#### bilinear DCM



Bilinear state equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \left(A + \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i B^{(i)}\right) x + Cu$$

#### nonlinear DCM



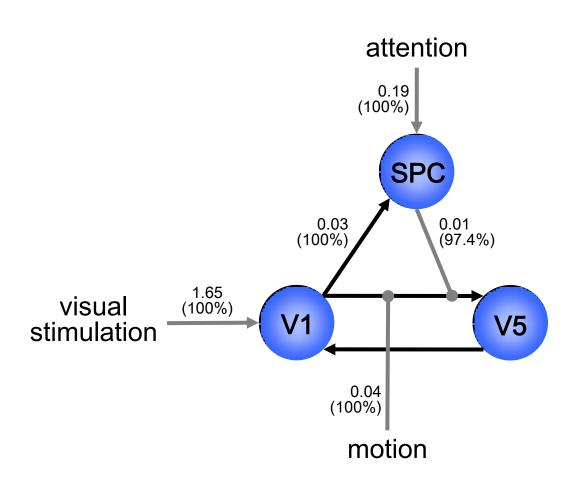
Nonlinear state equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \left(A + \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i B^{(i)}\right) x + Cu \qquad \frac{dx}{dt} = \left(A + \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_i B^{(i)} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j D^{(j)}\right) x + Cu$$

Here DCM can model activity-dependent changes in connectivity; how connections are enabled or gated by activity in one or more areas.

### **Extension III: Nonlinear DCM for fMRI**

Can V5 activity during attention to motion be explained by allowing activity in SPC to modulate the V1-to-V5 connection?



The posterior density of  $D_{V5,V1}^{(SPC)}$  indicates that this gating existed with 97% confidence.

(The D matrix encodes which of the n neural units gate which connections in the system)

### So, DCM....

- enables one to infer hidden neuronal processes from fMRI data
- allows one to test mechanistic hypotheses about observed effects
  - uses a deterministic differential equation to model neuro-dynamics (represented by matrices A,B and C).
- is informed by anatomical and physiological principles.
- uses a Bayesian framework to estimate model parameters
- is a generic approach to modelling experimentally perturbed dynamic systems.
  - provides an observation model for neuroimaging data, e.g. fMRI, M/EEG
  - DCM is not model or modality specific (Models will change and the method extended to other modalities e.g. ERPs, LFPs)

### Some useful references

- The first DCM paper: Dynamic Causal Modelling (2003). Friston et al. Neurolmage 19:1273-1302.
- Physiological validation of DCM for fMRI: Identifying neural drivers with functional MRI: an electrophysiological validation (2008). David et al. *PLoS Biol.* 6 2683–2697
- **Hemodynamic model:** Comparing hemodynamic models with DCM (2007). Stephan et al. *NeuroImage* 38:387-401
- **Nonlinear DCMs:**Nonlinear Dynamic Causal Models for FMRI (2008). Stephan et al. *NeuroImage* 42:649-662
- **Two-state model:** Dynamic causal modelling for fMRI: A two-state model (2008). Marreiros et al. *Neurolmage* 39:269-278
- **Group Bayesian model comparison:** Bayesian model selection for group studies (2009). Stephan et al. *Neurolmage* 46:1004-10174
- 10 Simple Rules for DCM (2010). Stephan et al. Neurolmage 52.

