

Understanding Hierarchical Linear Models and their application to EEG

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Motivations

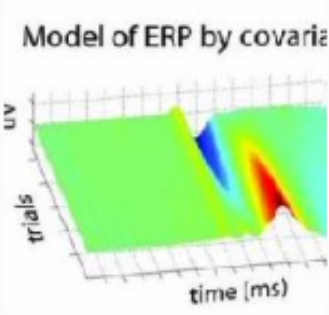
Motivation for hierarchical models

- Most often, we compute averages per condition and do statistics on peak latencies and amplitudes
- Univariate methods extract information among trials in time and/or frequency across space
- Multivariate methods extract information across space, time, or both, in individual trials
- Averages don't account for trial variability, fixed effect can be biased – these methods allow to get around these problems

LIMO EEG Toolbox




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LIMO EEG


This is the official repo for the LIMO EEG toolbox, the statistical analysis tool for EEGLAB


<https://github.com/LIMO-EEG-Toolbox> <https://www.hindawi.com/journals/cin/201...>

 **Repositories** 7

 **People** 4

 **Teams** 1

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 **Settings**

Framework

Hierarchical Linear Model Framework

1st level analysis:

GLM: $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$

→ 1 β per column of X
(= within subject effects)

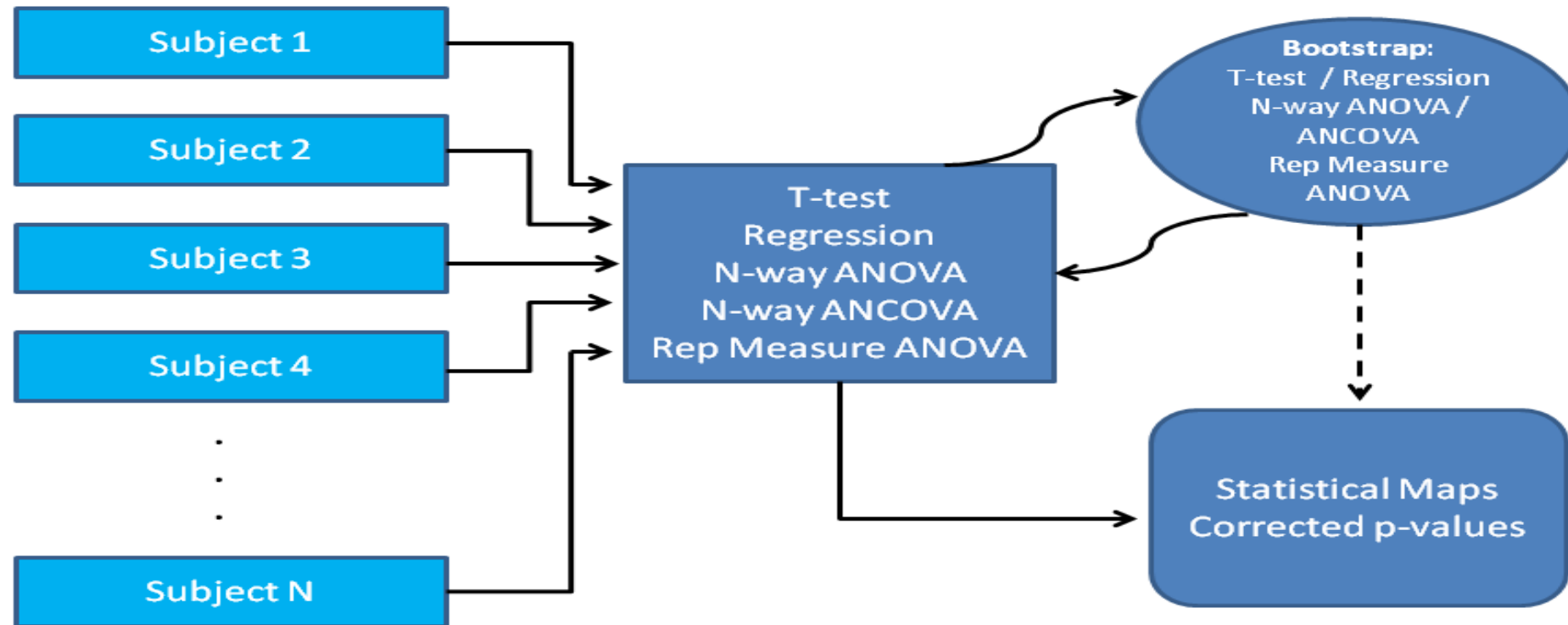
2nd level analysis:

Robust stats (Yuen t-tests, robust GLM, robust Hotelling T^2)

Multiple Comparison

Correction:

Max, Cluster-Mass, TFCE



Fixed, Random, Mixed and Hierarchical

Fixed effect: Something the experimenter directly manipulates

$y = XB + e$ data = beta * effects + error

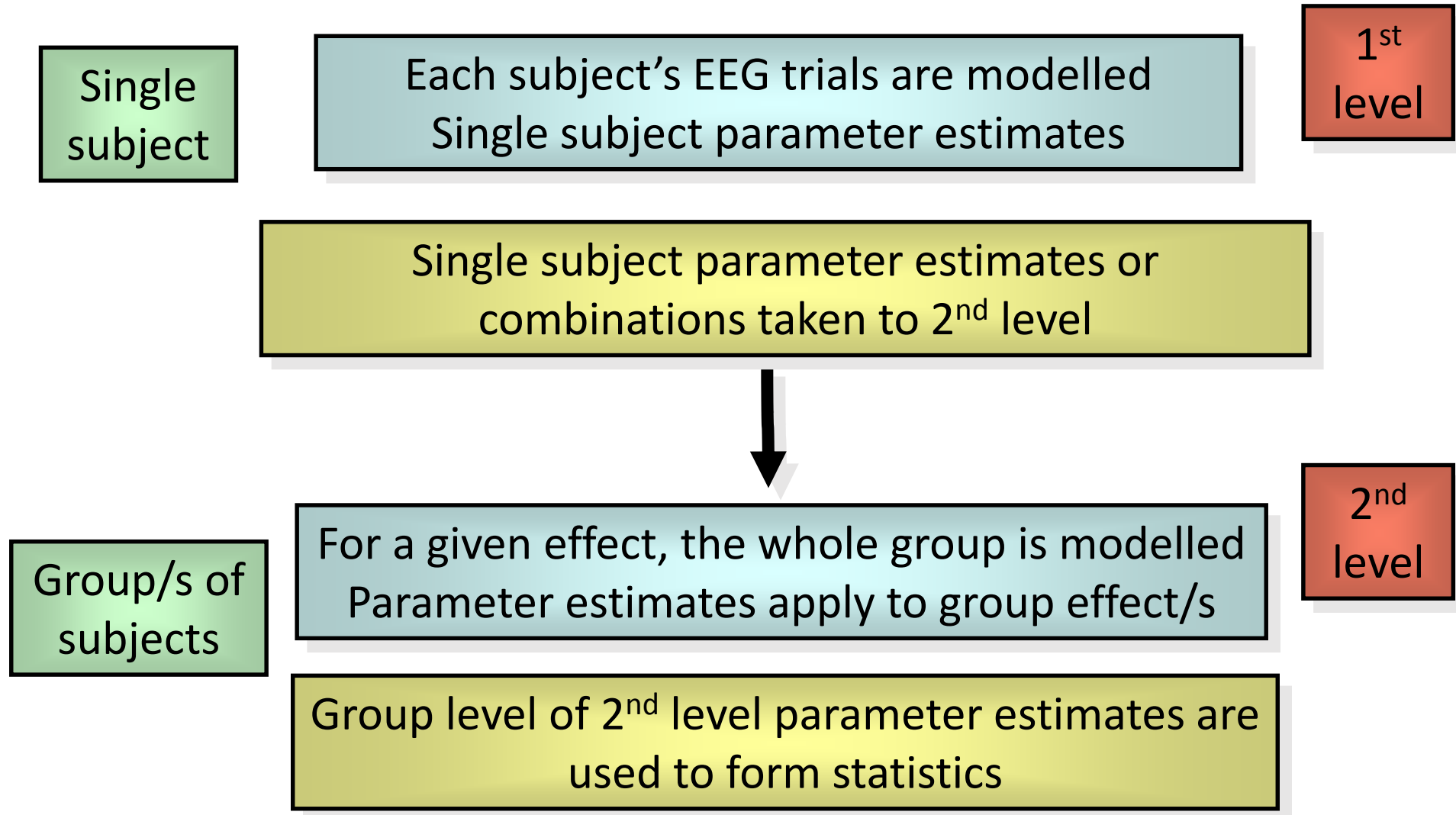
$y = XB + u + e$ data = beta * effects + constant subject effect + error

Random effect: Source of random variation e.g., individuals drawn (at random) from a population. **Mixed effect:** Includes both, the fixed effect (estimating the population level coefficients) and random effects to account for individual differences in response to an effect

$Y = XB + Zu + e$ data = beta * effects + zeta * subject variable effect + error

Hierarchical models are a mean to look at mixed effects.

Hierarchical model = 2-stage LM



Fixed vs Random

Fixed effects:

Intra-subjects variation

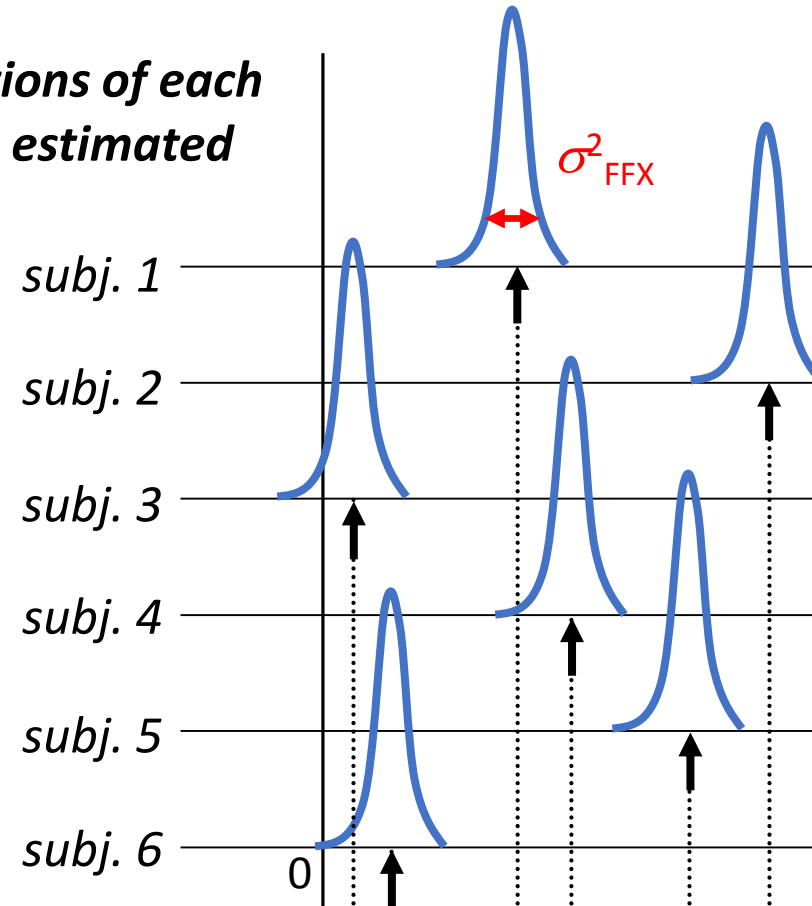
suggests all these subjects
different from zero

Random effects:

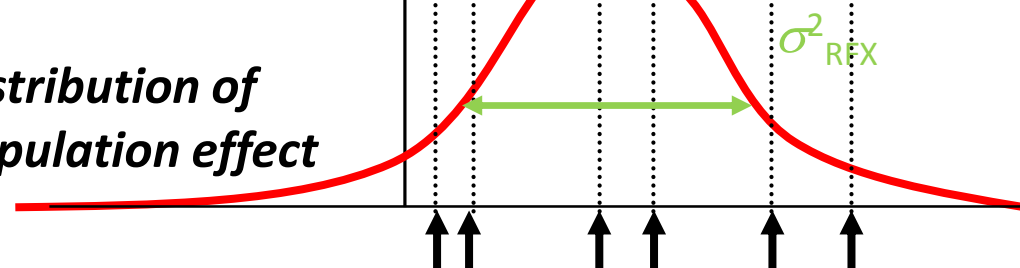
Inter-subjects variation

suggests population
not different from zero

*Distributions of each
subject's estimated
effect*



*Distribution of
population effect*

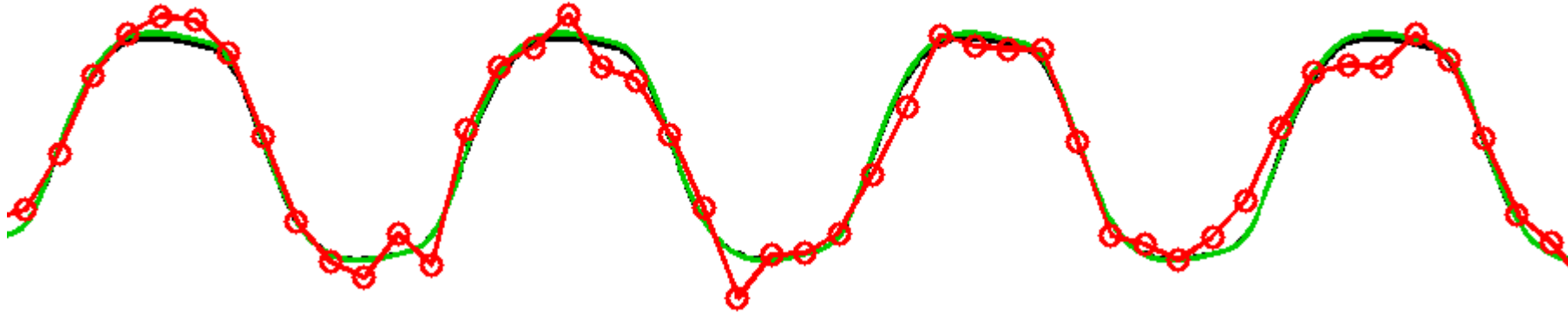


Fixed effects



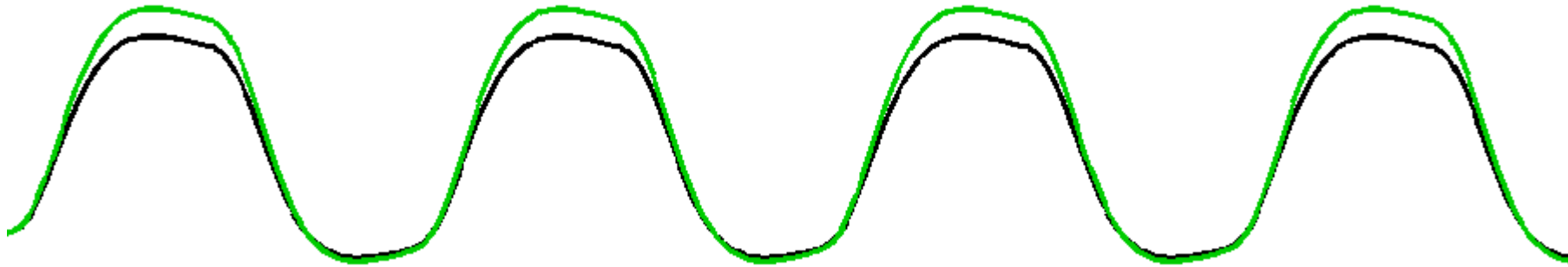
- ❑ Only source of variation (over trials)
is **measurement error**
- ❑ True response magnitude is *fixed*

Random effects



- Two sources of variation
 - measurement errors
 - response magnitude (over subjects)
- Response magnitude is *random*
 - each subject has random magnitude

Random effects

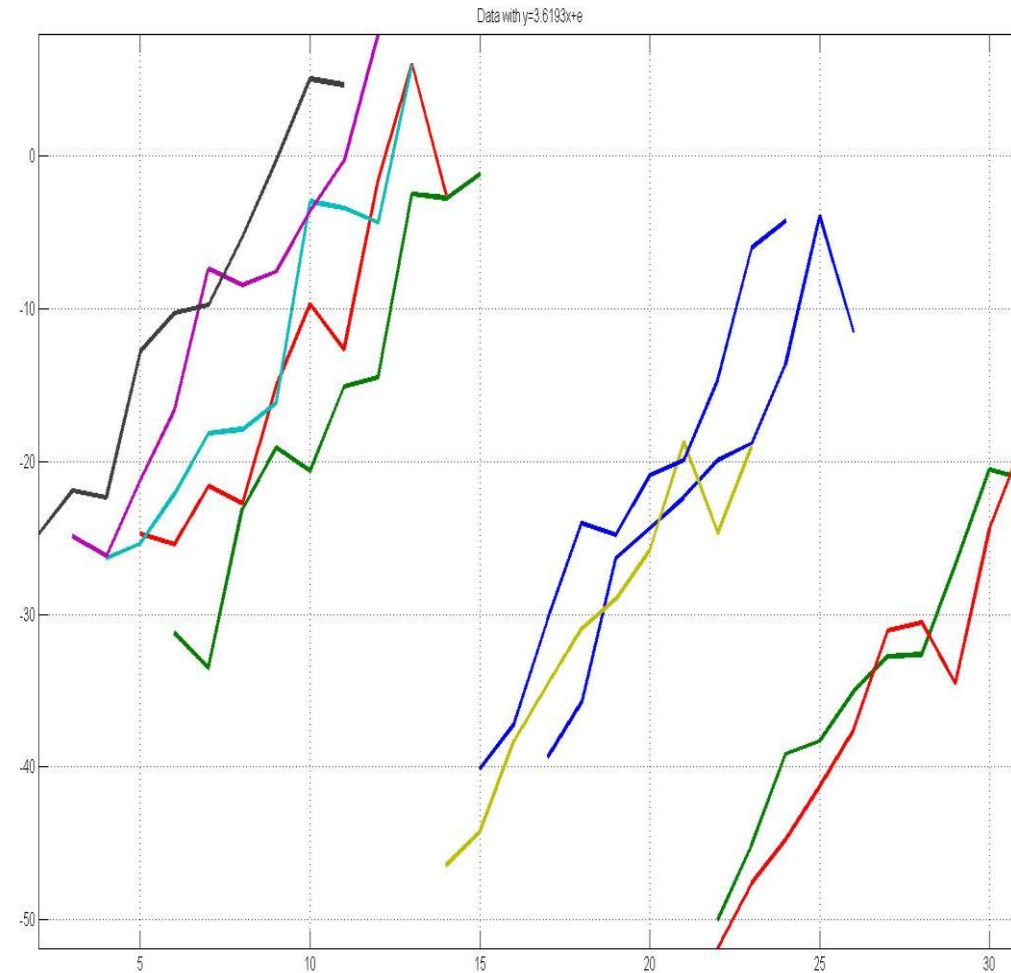


- Two sources of variation
 - measurement errors
 - response magnitude (over subjects)
- Response magnitude is *random*
 - each subject has random magnitude
 - but note, population mean magnitude is *fixed*

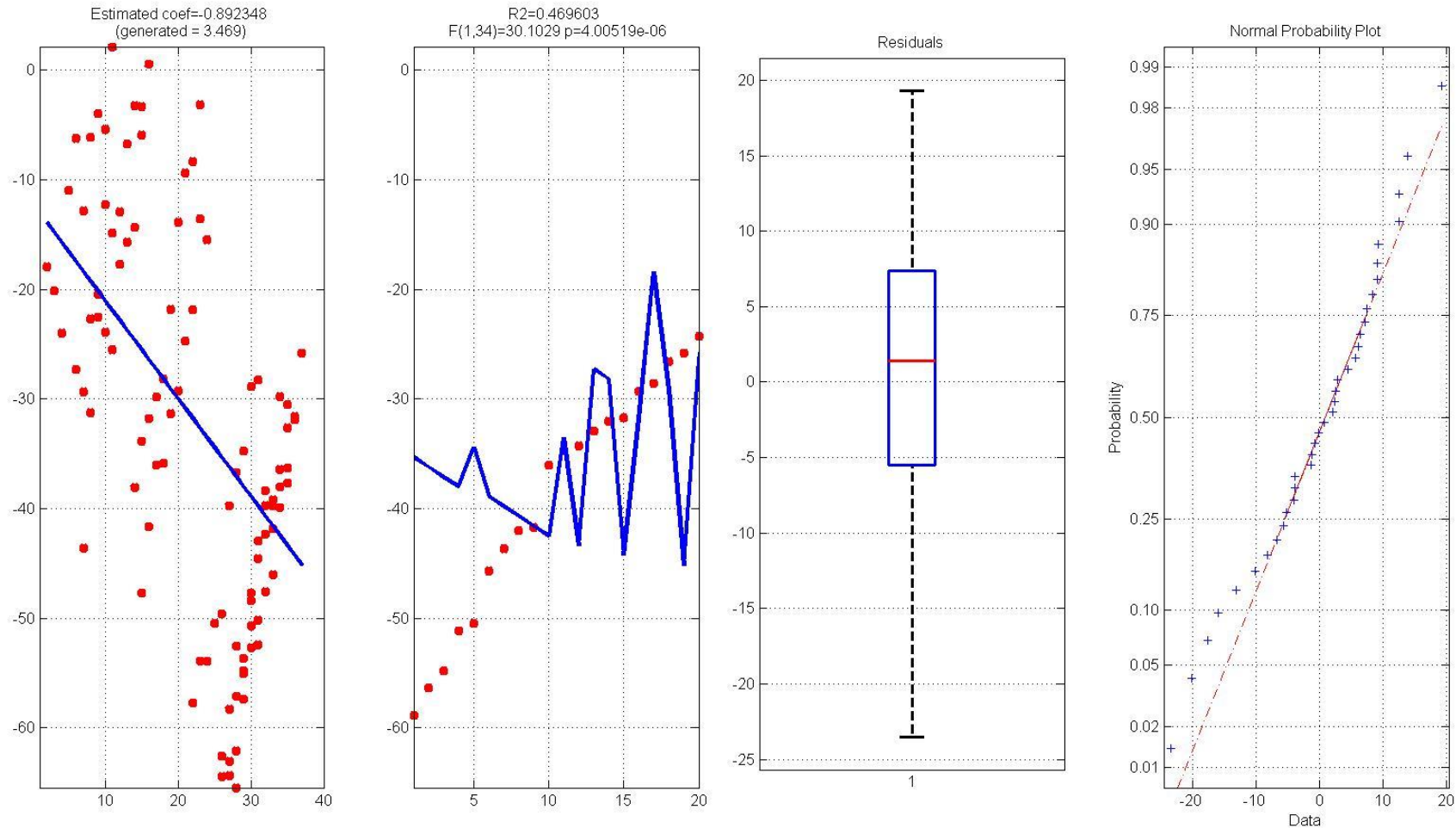
An example

Example: present stimuli from intensity -5 units to +5 units around the subject perceptual threshold and measure RT

→ There is a strong positive effect of intensity on responses

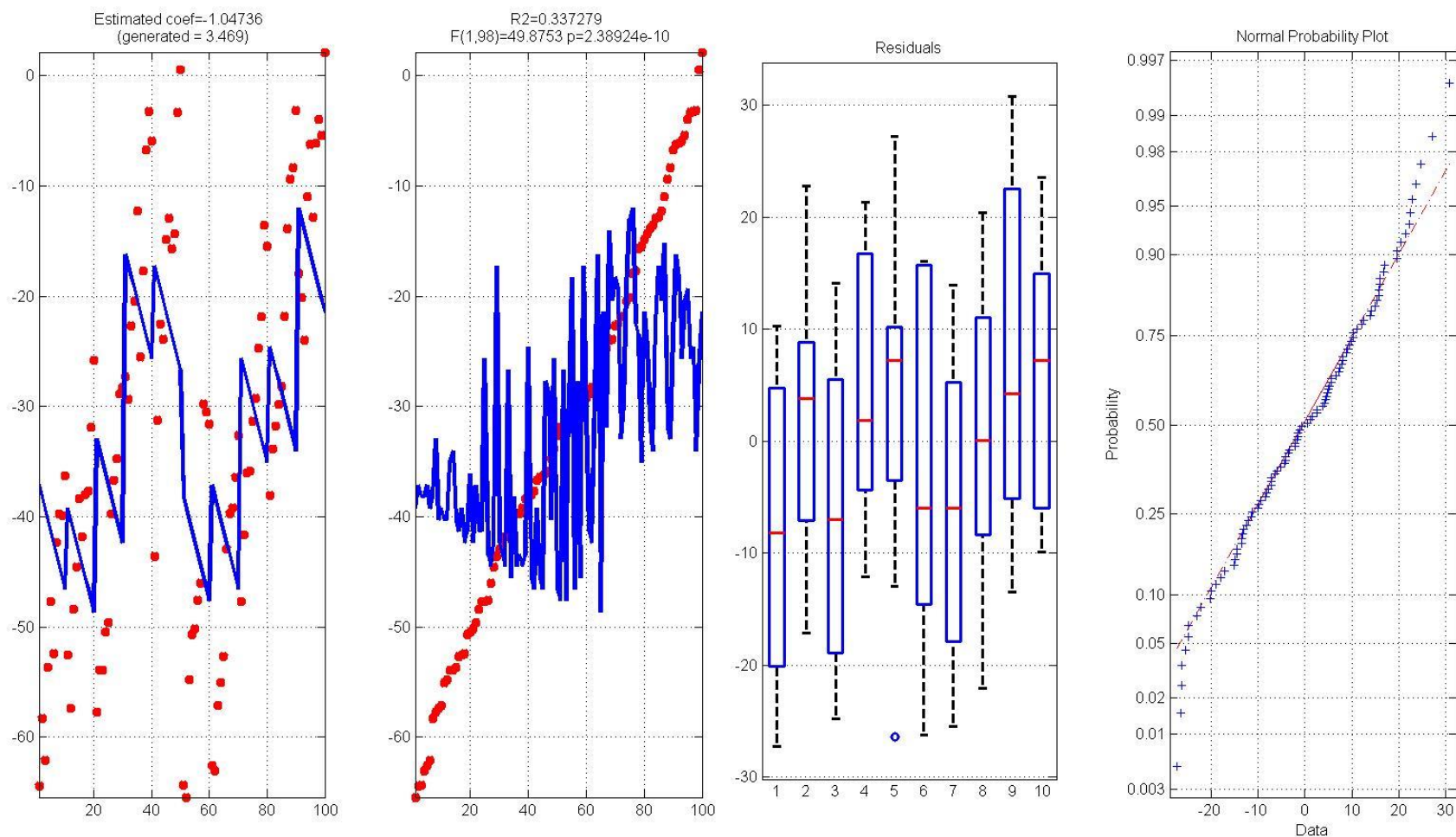


Fixed Effect Model 1: average subjects



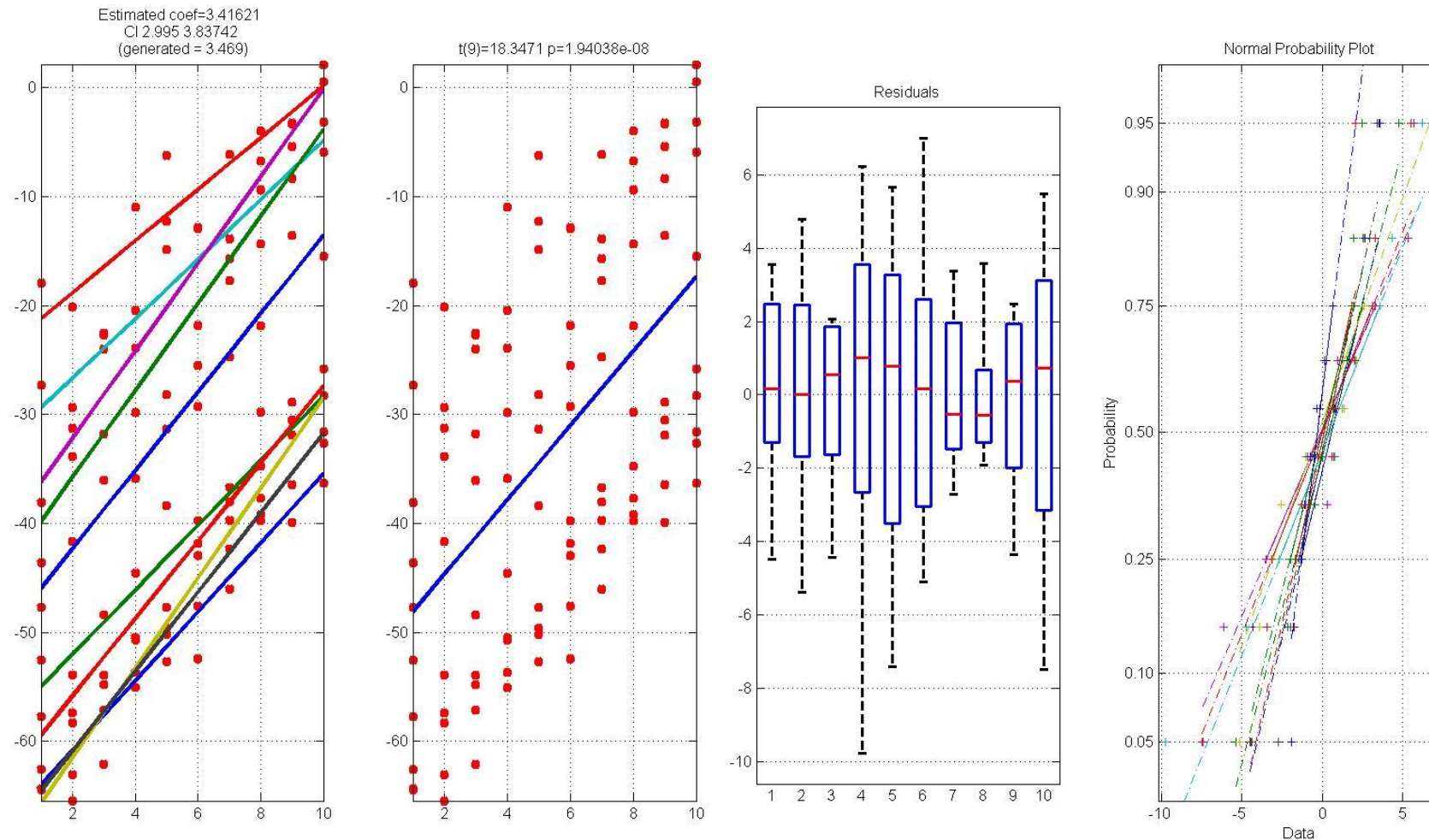
Fixed effect without subject effect → negative effect

Fixed Effect Model 2: constant over subjects



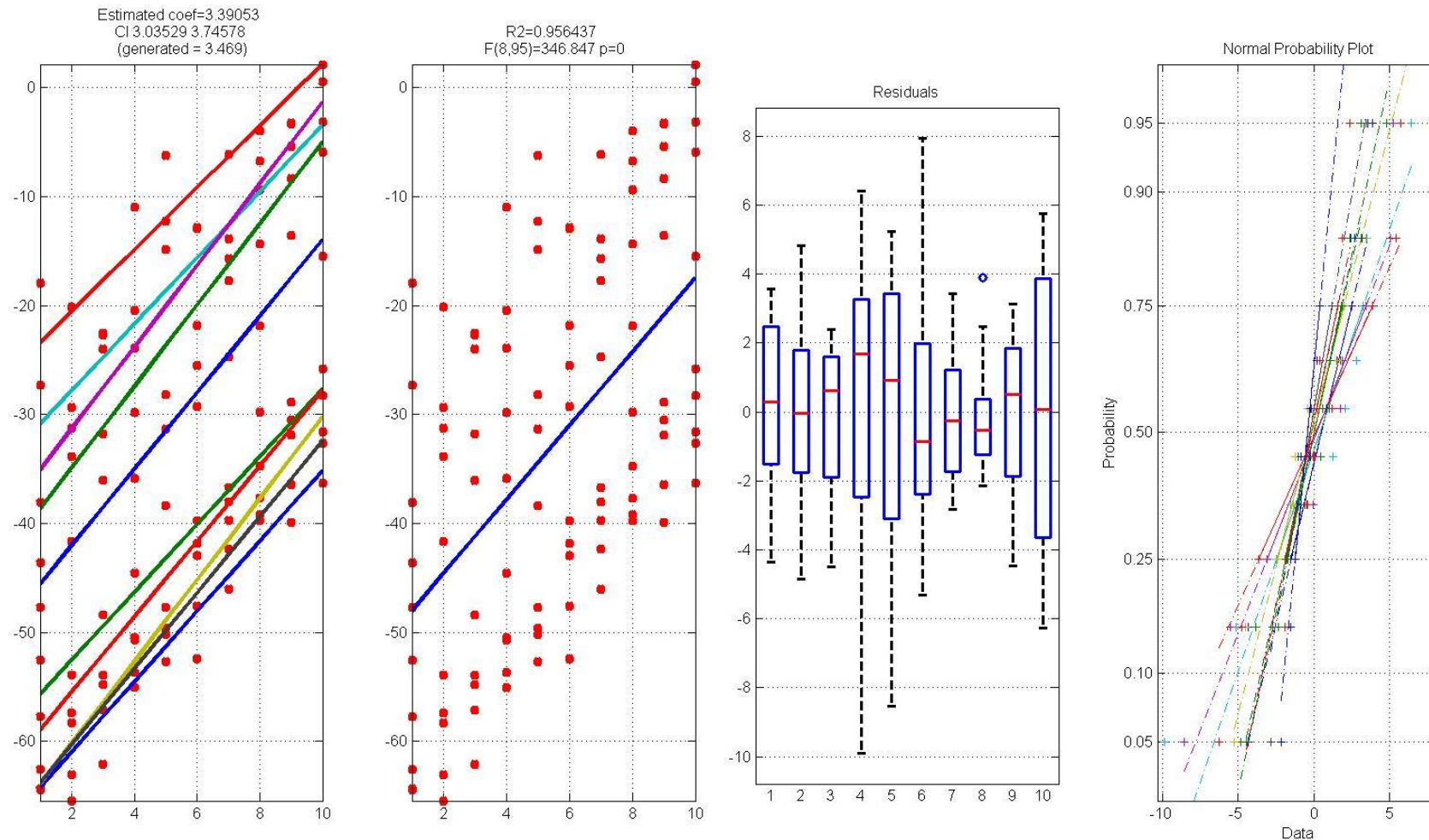
Fixed effect with a constant (fixed) subject effect → positive effect but biased result

HLM: random subject effect



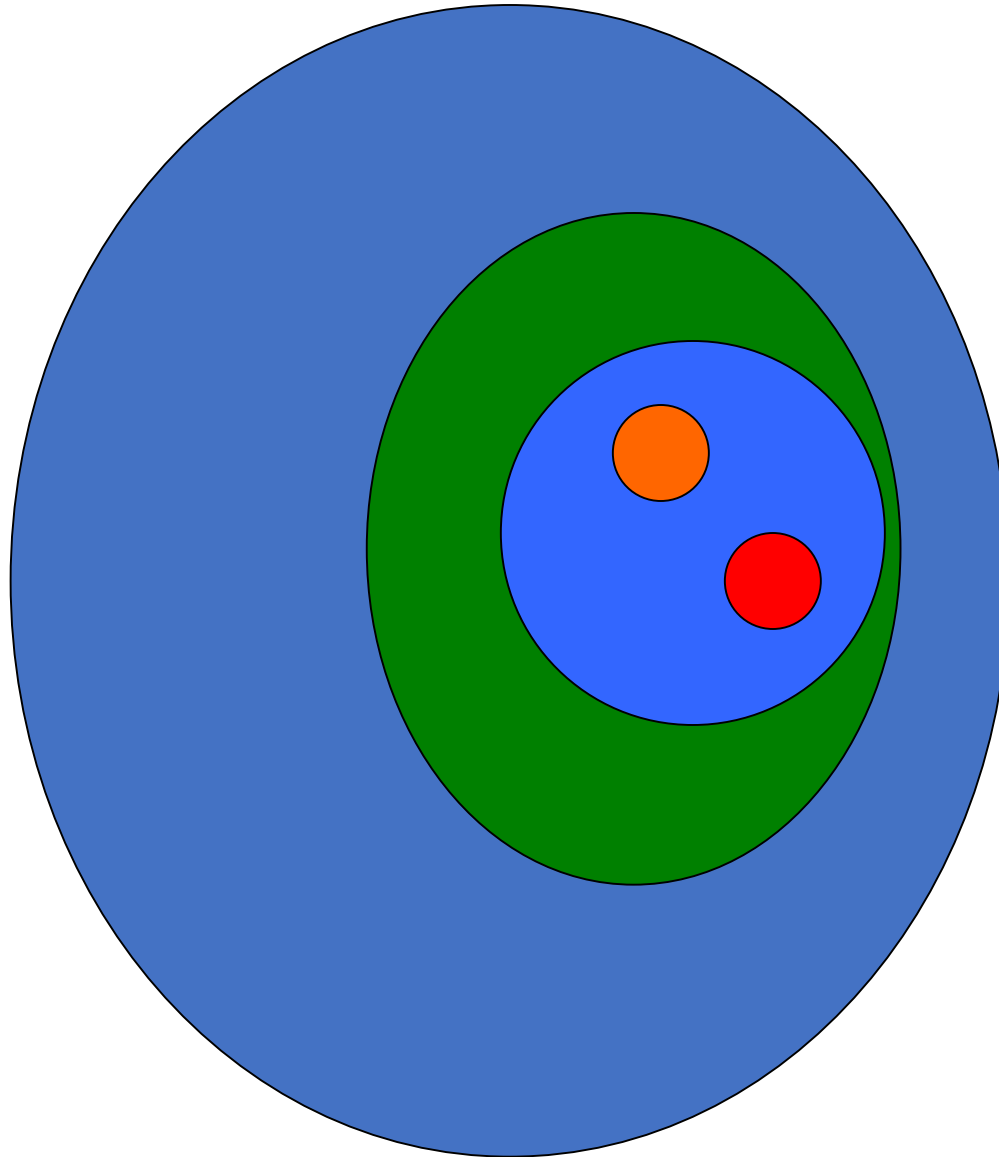
Mixed effect with a random subject effect → positive effect with good estimate of the truth

MLE: random subject effect



Mixed effect with a random subject effect → positive effect with good estimate of the truth

The GLM Family



T-tests

Simple regression

ANOVA

Multiple regression

General linear model

- Mixed effects/hierarchical
- Timeseries models (e.g., autoregressive)
- Robust regression
- Penalized regression (LASSO, Ridge)

Generalized linear models

- Non-normal errors
- Binary/categorical outcomes (logistic regression)

One-step solution

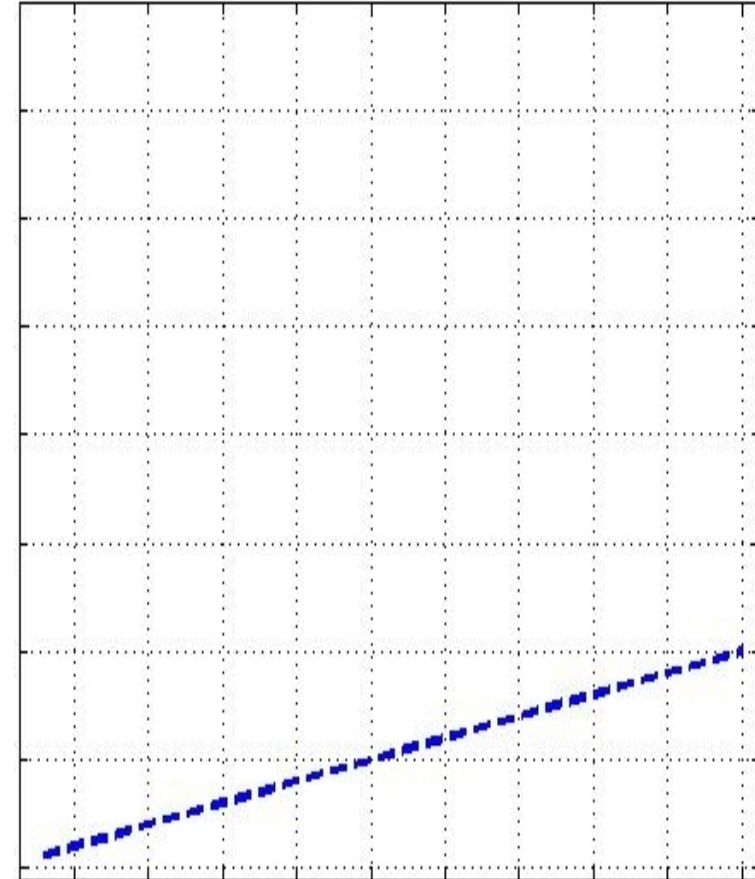
Iterative solutions (e.g., IWLS)

What is a linear model?

- An equation or a set of equations that models data and which corresponds geometrically to straight lines, planes, hyper-planes and satisfy the properties of additivity and scaling.
- Simple regression: $y = \beta_1 x + \beta_2 + \varepsilon$
- Multiple regression: $y = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 + \varepsilon$
- One way ANOVA: $y = u + \alpha_i + \varepsilon$
- Repeated measure ANOVA: $y = u + \alpha_i + \varepsilon$
- ...

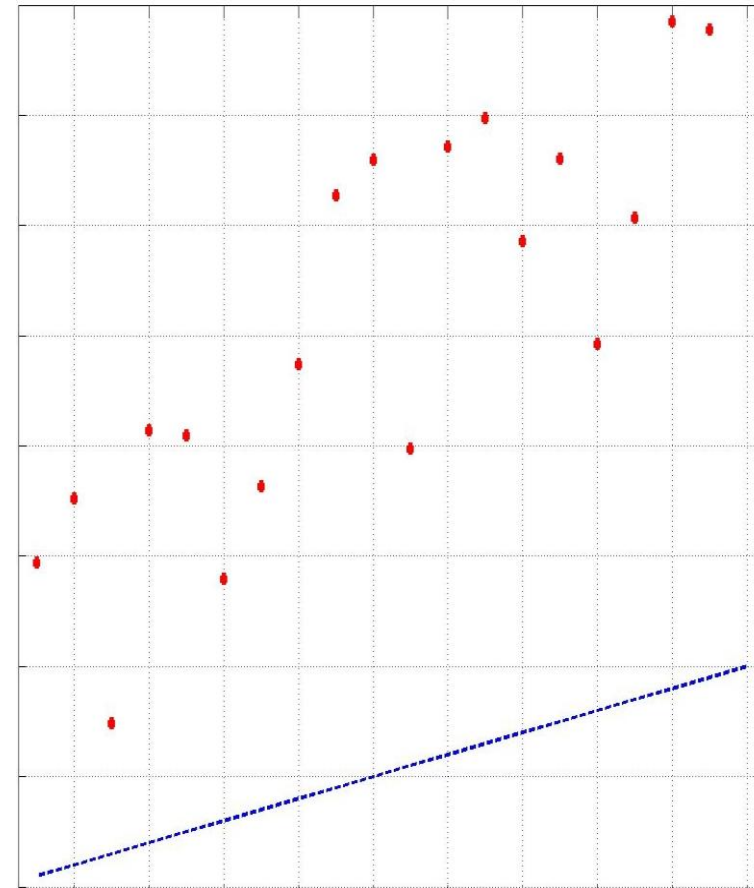
A regression is a linear model

- We have an experimental measure x (e.g. stimulus intensity from 0 to 20)



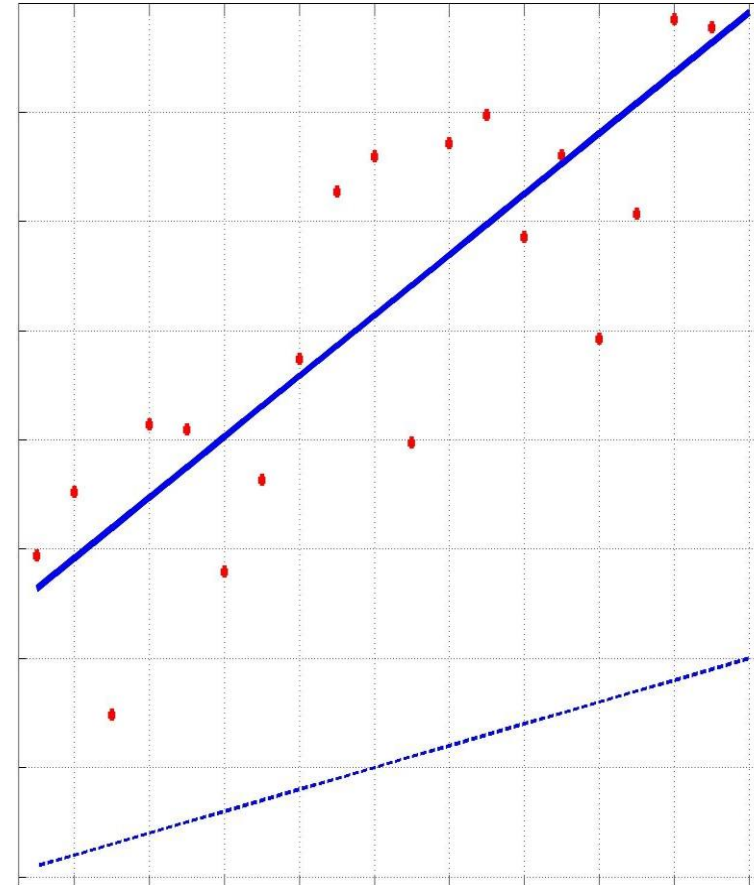
A regression is a linear model

- We have an experimental measure x (e.g. stimulus intensity from 0 to 20)
- We then do the expe and collect data y (e.g. RTs)



A regression is a linear model

- We have an experimental measure x (e.g. stimulus intensity from 0 to 20)
- We then do the expe and collect data y (e.g. RTs)
- Model: $y = \beta_1 x + \beta_2$
- Do some maths / run a software to find β_1 and β_2
- $\hat{y} = 2.7x + 23.6$



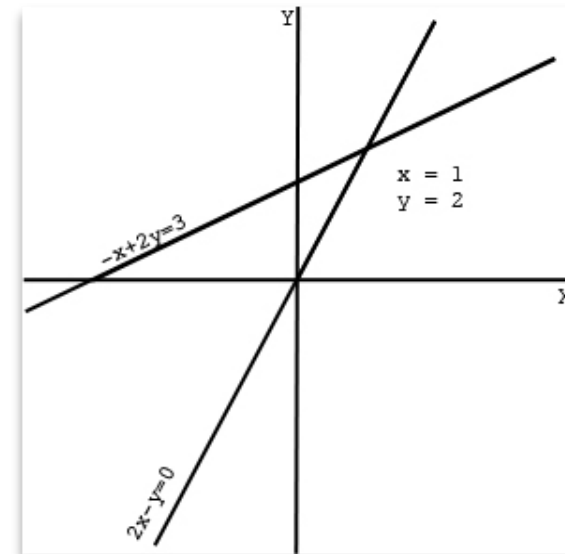
Linear algebra for regression

- Linear algebra has to do with solving linear systems, i.e. a set of linear equations
- For instance we have observations (y) for a stimulus characterized by its properties x_1 and x_2 such as $y = x_1 \beta_1 + x_2 \beta_2$

$$2\beta_1 - \beta_2 = 0$$

$$-\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 = 3$$

$$\beta_1 = 1 ; \beta_2 = 2$$



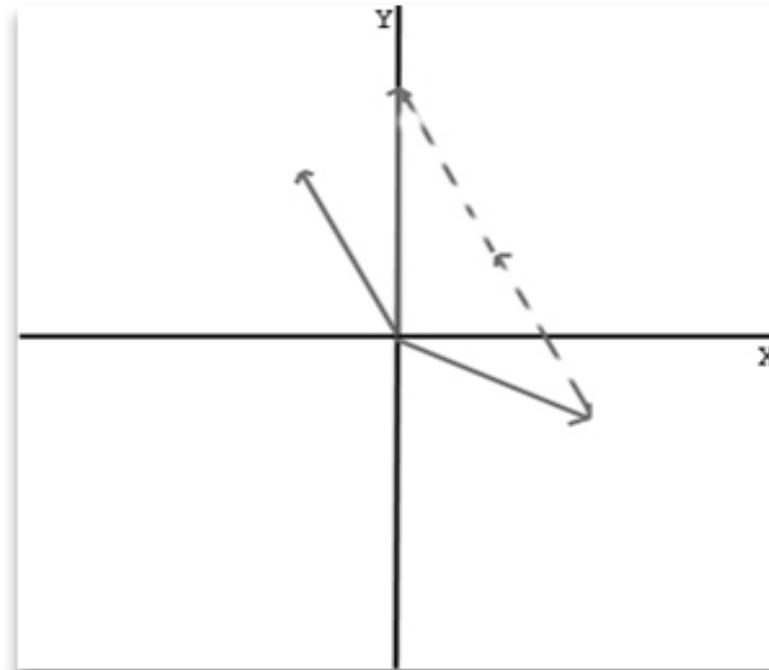
Linear algebra for regression

- With matrices, we change the perspective and try to combine columns instead of rows, i.e. we look for the coefficients with allow the linear combination of vectors

$$\begin{aligned}2\beta_1 - \beta_2 &= 0 \\ -\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 &= 3\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\beta_1 = 1 ; \beta_2 = 2$$



Linear algebra for ANOVA

- In text books we have $y = u + x_i + \varepsilon$, that is to say the data (e.g. RT) = a constant term (grand mean u) + the effect of a treatment (x_i) and the error term (ε)
- In a regression x_i takes several values like e.g. [1:20]
- In an ANOVA x_i is designed to represent groups using 1 and 0

Linear algebra for ANOVA

Y	Gp
8	1
9	1
7	1
5	2
7	2
3	2
3	3
4	3
1	3
6	4
4	4
9	4

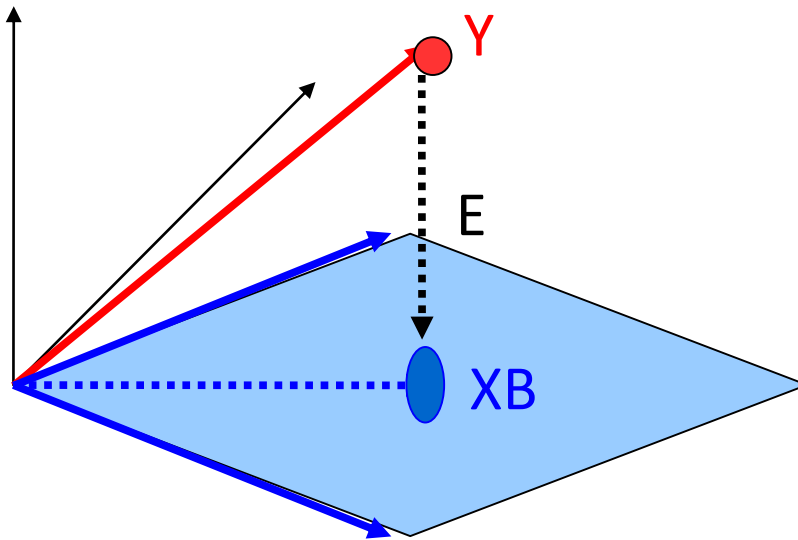
$$\begin{aligned}
 y(1..3)1 &= 1x_1 + 0x_2 + 0x_3 + 0x_4 + c + e_{11} \\
 y(1..3)2 &= 0x_1 + 1x_2 + 0x_3 + 0x_4 + c + e_{12} \\
 y(1..3)3 &= 0x_1 + 0x_2 + 1x_3 + 0x_4 + c + e_{13} \\
 y(1..3)4 &= 0x_1 + 0x_2 + 0x_3 + 1x_4 + c + e_{14}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{Bmatrix} 8 \\ 9 \\ 7 \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 3 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ 4 \\ 4 \\ 9 \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{Bmatrix} * \begin{Bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ \beta_4 \\ c \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{Bmatrix} e_{11} \\ e_{12} \\ e_{13} \\ e_{14} \end{Bmatrix}$$

→ This is like the multiple regression except that we have ones and zeros instead of 'real' values so we can solve the same way

Linear Algebra, geometry and Statistics

- $Y = 3$ observations $X = 2$ regressors
- $Y = XB + E \rightarrow B = \text{inv}(X'X)X'Y \rightarrow \hat{Y} = XB$



SS total = variance in Y

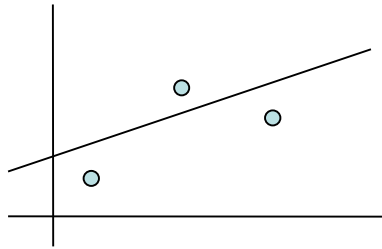
SS effect = variance in XB

SS error = variance in E

$R^2 = \text{SS effect} / \text{SS total}$

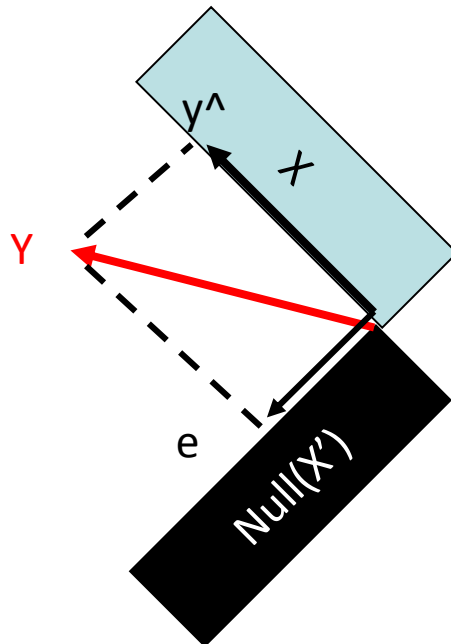
$F = \text{SS effect/df} / \text{SS error/dfe}$

Linear Algebra, geometry and Statistics



$$y = \beta x + c$$

Projecting the points on the line at perpendicular angles minimizes the distance²



$$Y = \hat{y} + e$$

$$P = X \text{ inv}(X'X) X'$$

$$\hat{y} = PY$$

$$e = (I - P)Y$$

An 'effect' is defined by which part of X to test (i.e. project on a subspace)

$$R0 = I - (X0 * \text{pinv}(X0));$$

$$P = R0 - R;$$

$$\text{Effect} = (B' * X' * P * X * B);$$

Linear Algebra, geometry and Statistics

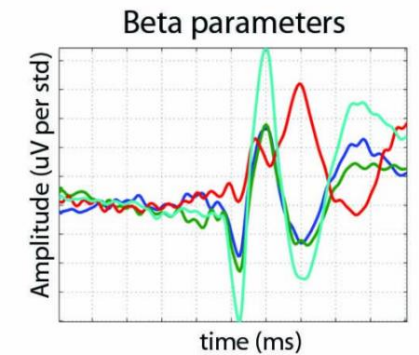
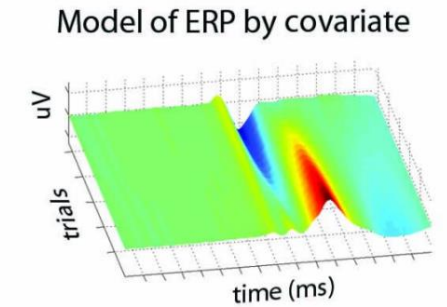
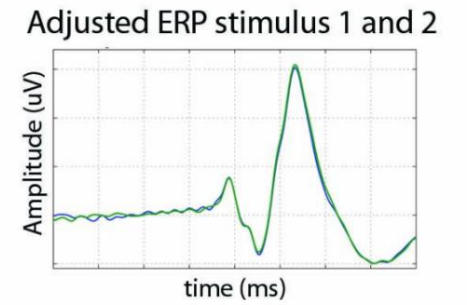
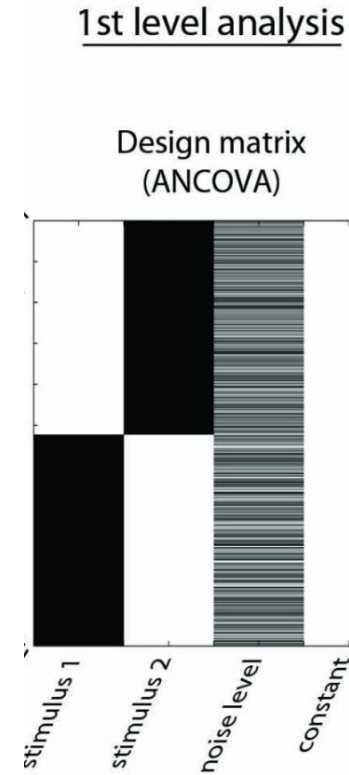
- Projections are great because we can now constrain \hat{Y} to move along any combinations of the columns of X
- Say you now want to contrast gp1 vs gp2 in a ANOVA with 3 gp, do $C = [1 \ -1 \ 0 \ 0]$
- Compute B so we have XB based on the full model X then using $P(C(X))$ we project \hat{Y} onto the constrained model (think doing a multiple regression gives different coef than multiple simple regression \rightarrow project on different spaces)



Application for EEG

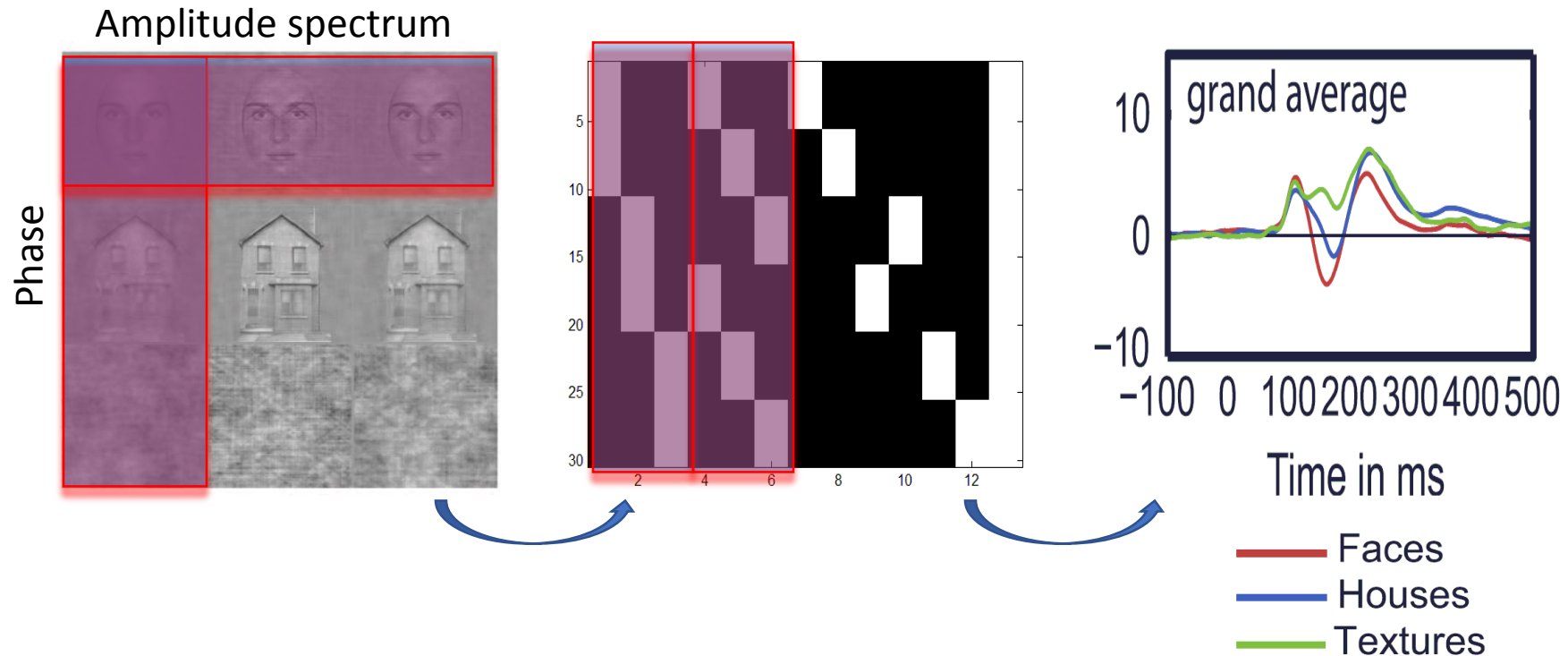
Design considerations

Illustration with a set of studies looking at the effect of stimulus phase information



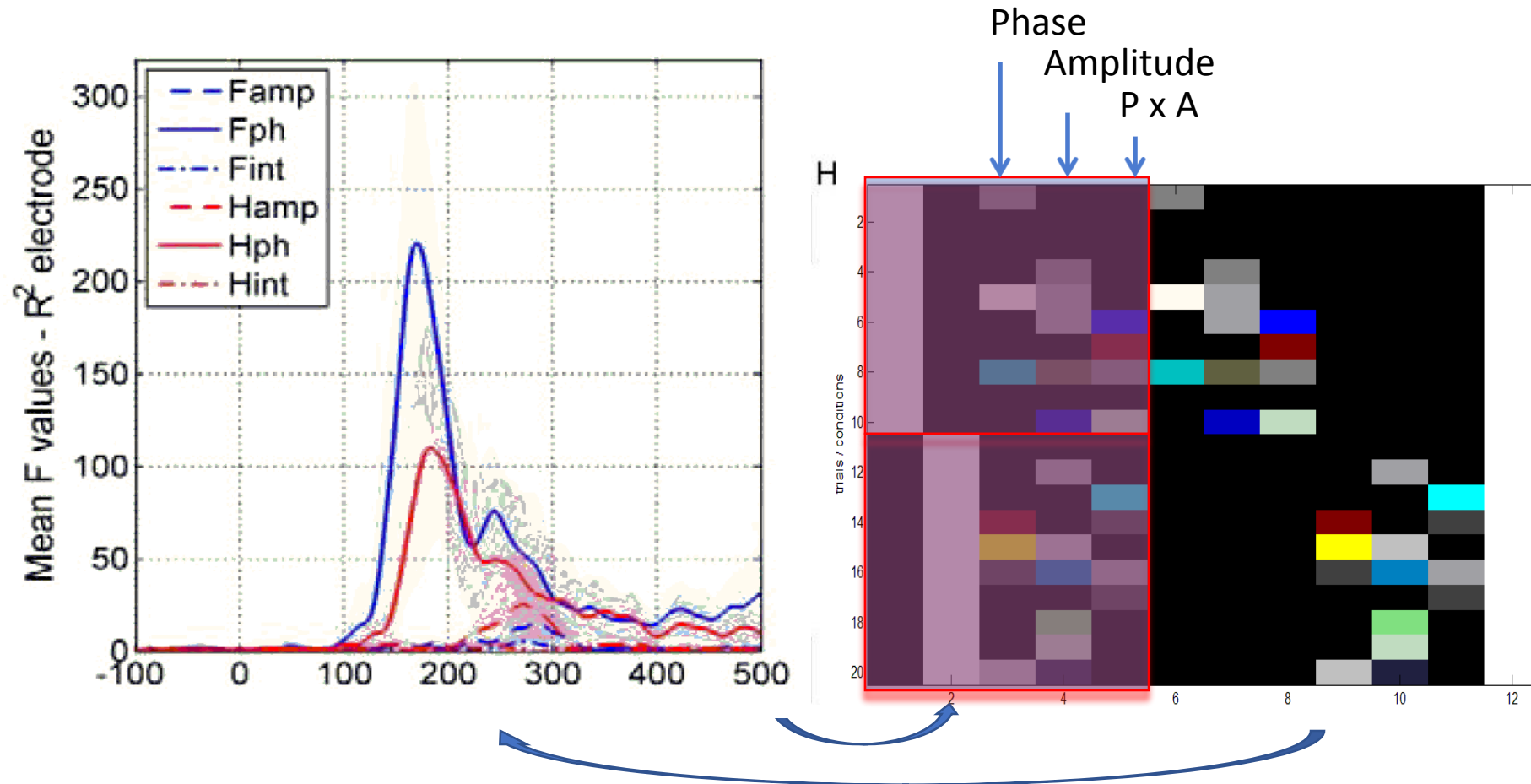
Factorial Designs: $N*N*N*...$

Categorical designs: Group level analyses of course but also Individual analyses with bootstrap



Regression based designs

Mixed design: Control of low level physical properties

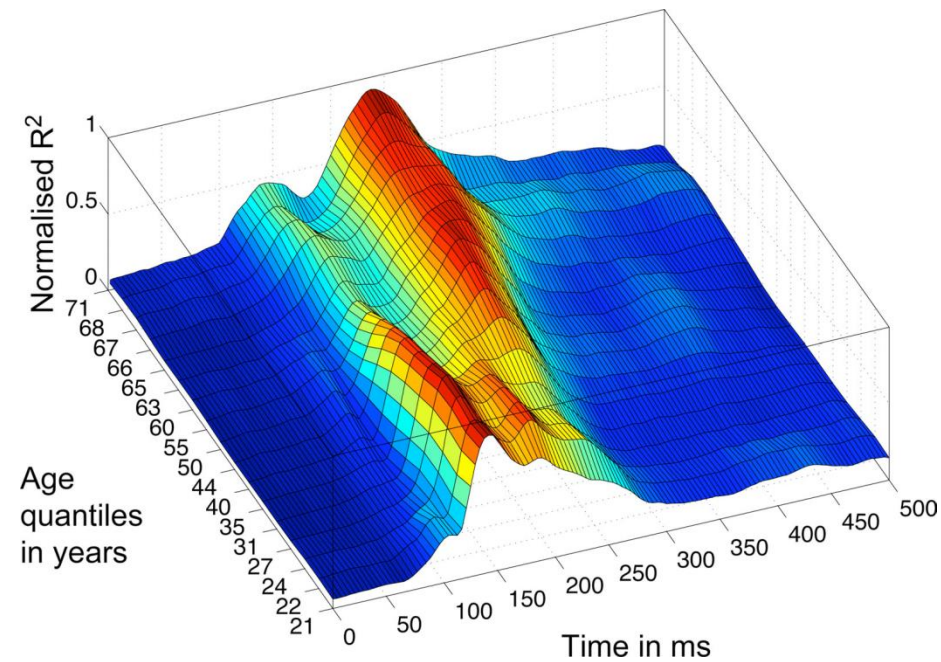
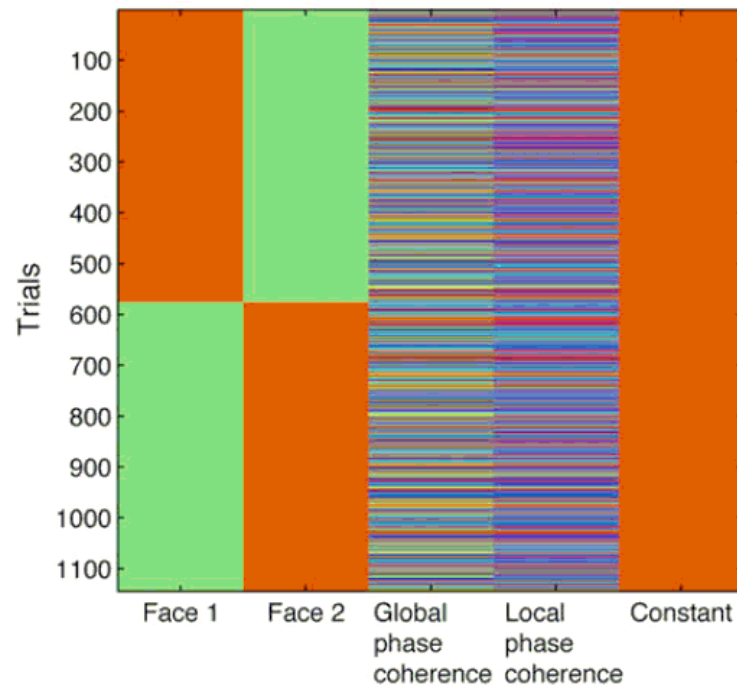


Regression based designs (2 levels)

Parametric designs:

study the effect of stimulus properties within subjects

effect of aging between subjects



Conclusion

- HLM allows you to model any designs
- Not just designs, also confounds (e.g. stimulus properties)
- 1st level is like getting averages for each condition but better because (i) it removes subjects effect (ii) accounts for trial variability
- GLM is just your usual statistics but using generic approach, i.e. it's better because more flexible