DyNeMoC: A semi-supervised architecture for classifying time series brain data

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Abstract

Understanding how different regional networks of the brain get activated and how those activations change over time can help in identifying the onset of various neurodegenerative diseases, studying the efficacy of different treatment regimens for those illnesses, and developing brain-computer interfaces for patients with different types of disabilities. To explain dynamic brain networks, an RNN-VAE model named DyNeMo has recently been proposed. This model can take into account the whole recorded history of brain states while modeling their dynamics and is able to better capture the complexities in larger datasets than previous works. In this paper, we show that the latent representations learned by DyNeMo through unsupervised training are not sufficient for downstream classification tasks and propose a new semi-supervised model named DyNeMoC that overcomes this shortcoming. The downstream task we study is the classification of visual stimuli from MEG recordings. We show that both of our proposed variants of DyNeMoC — DyNeMoC-RNN and DyNeMoC-Transformer — lead to more useful latent representations for stimuli classification with the transformer variant outperforming the RNN one. Learning representations that are directly linked to a downstream task in this manner could ultimately be used to improve the monitoring and treatment of certain neurodegenerative diseases and building better brain-computer interfaces.

1 Introduction

Brain states are regional networks of neurons which spontaneously activate while at rest (Biswal et al., 1995; Fox & Raichle, 2007; Raichle et al., 2001) and while performing various cognitive tasks (Kurth-Nelson et al., 2015; Isik et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2011). A useful imaging modality for studying the dynamic nature of these brain states is MEG (Lopes da Silva, 2013) because it provides a direct measure of neuronal activity at a millisecond resolution — a highly desirable property for studying brain activities at their natural time scale (Proudfoot et al., 2014).

Characterizing the spatio-temporal dynamics of brain states can not only help us in gaining a better understanding of the underpinnings of cognition (Buzsáki & Draguhn, 2004; Bressler & Menon, 2010) but also has numerous healthcare applications. Functional connectivity (Friston, 1994) of brain states are being used to study the diagnosis (Josef Golubic et al., 2017; Schoonhoven et al., 2019; Dimitriadis et al., 2018; Schumacher et al., 2019; Fiorenzato et al., 2019; Dopper et al., 2014; Mandal et al., 2018; Babiloni et al., 2020) of and intervention (Shigihara et al., 2020b;a) for different neurodegenerative diseases. Correct identification of brain states can also lead to better brain-computer interfaces with implications in patient-care (Liberati et al., 2012; Mudgal et al., 2020).

Historically, sliding window techniques have been used to infer dynamic brain networks from neuroimaging data (Wendling et al., 2009; Allen et al., 2012). More recently, there has been a shift to using unsupervised learning approaches, such as Hidden Markov models (HMMs) (Baker et al., 2014; Vidaurre et al., 2016; 2017; 2018), and variational autoencoders (VAEs) (Perl et al., 2020) for this type of work. One recent development along this line has been the introduction of an unsupervised RNN-VAE (Chung et al., 2015; Bowman et al., 2015; Fabius & Van Amersfoort, 2014) named DyNeMo (Gohil et al., 2022) which is a generative model and Bayesian inference scheme for identifying brain networks.

In this work, we devise a semi-supervised architecture named DyNeMoC that builds on DyNeMo. We propose two variants of DyNeMoC — DyNeMoC-RNN and DyNeMoC-Transformer — and conduct experiments on a real-world MEG dataset that contains neural responses to visual stimuli. We establish that DyNeMoC is better than DyNeMo for learning latent state representations that are useful for certain downstream tasks of interest such as the classification of visual stimuli. We further demonstrate that the DyNeMoC-Transformer architecture can far outperform DyNeMoC-RNN in this aspect. We hypothesize the representations learned by DeNeMoC would also be useful in other applications if the same brain states are recruited.

2 BACKGROUND

DyNeMo is a VAE (Kingma & Welling, 2013; 2019) with a bidirectional RNN encoder, a unidirectional RNN prior network, and a decoder which is further comprised of state means and covariances. The core modeling assumption behind it is that neural time series data is generated from a finite set of J latent brain states, where each state can be represented by a distinct multivariate normal distribution. These states probabilistically mix, i.e. linearly combine with each other with coefficients α_{jt} at each time step t (such that $\alpha_{jt} \in [0, 1]$ and $\sum_{j=0}^{J} \alpha_{jt} = 1$) to generate a time-varying description of the means and covariances of the data. Here, α_{jt} for each state at time step t is computed by using the softmax operation on the posterior logits (latent representation) $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ produced by the encoder.

Gohil et al. (2022) trained DyNeMo by minimizing the variational free energy, $\mathcal{L} = -LL + KL$, where $-LL$ denotes the negative log-likelihood (NLL) of an observation being generated from the learned state means and covariances, and KL denotes KL divergence from the prior to the posterior distribution. Further details regarding DyNeMo can be found in Gohil et al. (2022).

3 METHODOLOGY

In this work, we evaluate the usefulness of the latent representations learned by DyNeMo in a downstream classification task. We propose these latent representations can be improved by jointly training a multilayer perceptron (MLP) classifier with DyNeMo. This approach incentivizes the model to encode information useful for the downstream task (class labels) into the latent representation. We call this model DyNeMoC and provide its general architecture and data flow in Figure 1.

The MLP classifier of DyNeMoC is fed the inferred logit courses $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ by the encoder as a flattened vector. We used inferred $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ courses instead of inferred $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ courses here because unlike α_{jt} which are confined between 0 and 1, θ_{jt} could take any real value.

Our updated loss function $\mathcal{L}_u$ for the joint network thus became as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_u = -LL + KL + w_c \times CC \tag{1}$$

where CC is the cross entropy between the actual and predicted labels, and w_c is a hyperparameter controlling the weight of the cross-entropy loss.

Gohil et al. (2022) originally devised DyNeMo with RNNs, particularly LSTMs (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997). We label a DyNeMoC model stemming from the original architecture as a DyNeMoC-RNN. Recognizing the RNNs are essentially sequence-learning networks, we further created an enhanced version of DyNeMoC based on transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) which we call DyNeMoC-Transformer. In this architecture, we used a small-scale BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) model for the encoder and a small-scale GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) model for the prior network. We opted for small-scale BERT and GPT-2 models because of limited amounts of labelled training data being available.

The DyNeMo component of the first DyNeMoC-RNN model we designed was similar to the DyNeMo described in Gohil et al. (2022). This DyNeMoC-RNN model had 2.1M learnable parameters, and we call it DyNeMoC-RNN-Small. Our DyNeMoC-Transformer model, on the other hand, had 9.2M parameters. To do a proper comparison between, DyNeMoC-RNN and DyNeMoC-Transformer, we designed DyNeMoC-RNN-Large with 9.8M parameters. The particular hyperparameters of the different DyNeMoC models are provided in Appendix A.2.

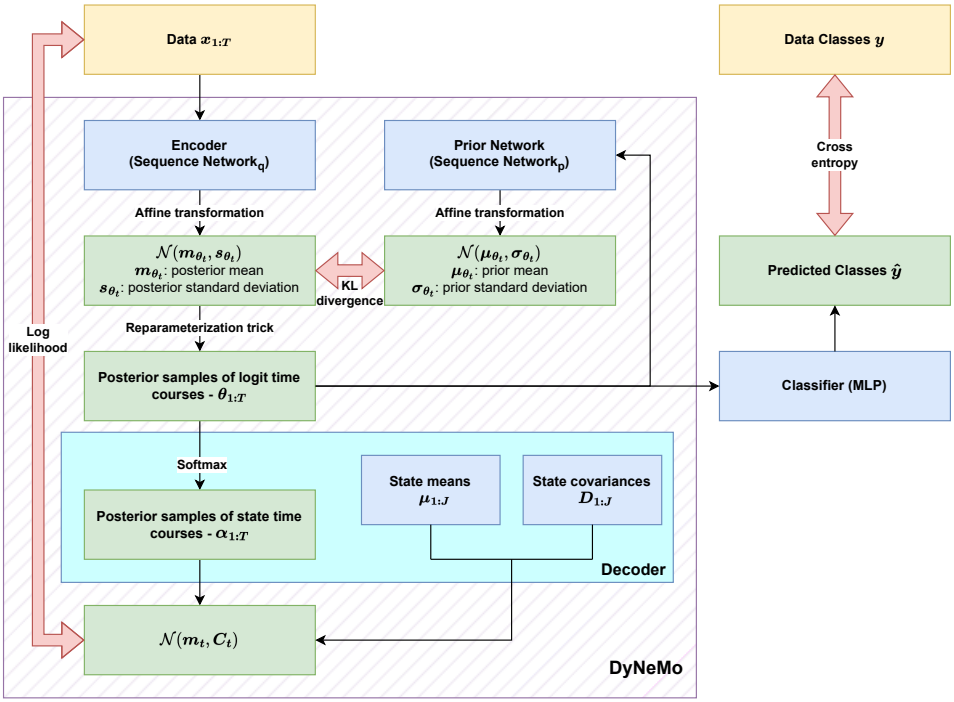

Figure 1: The general architecture and data flow of DyNeMoC

4 Experiments

4.1 Dataset

In this study, we used a dataset created by Cichy et al. (2016) that contained MEG data collected from 15 subjects while they were shown images of 118 different object classes (also referred to as conditions) at 0.9–1s intervals (around 30 times for each object class). We first pre-processed the MEG data by performing band-pass filtering on it and then downsampling it to 250Hz frequency. We kept each trial in the range -0.2–0.6s (inclusive). So each trial in this dataset had $(0.6 - (-0.2)) \times 250 + 1 = 201$ timesteps. We then performed a 70-15-15 train-validation-test split of the dataset while maintaining the relative balance among the trials in all the conditions for all subjects.

The 306 sensors that were used to record the MEG data in this dataset measure different properties of magnetic fields at different scales. Moreover, working with covariance matrices of dimensions (306×306) is also computationally quite expensive. Hence, for each subject, we standardized, PCA-transformed, and re-standardized their trials to reduce the data dimensions and bring features to the same scale. We settled for 80 principal components while conducting PCA as these components explained over 98% of the observed variance in each subject's data on average. We note that it was necessary to process each subject's data separately here because the data among subjects do not align in sensor-space and PCA-space owing to the structural and functional variety in human brains as well as the non-uniformity in sensor placement (Zhang et al., 2017). As such, in each of our experiments, a model was trained and evaluated on one subject only.

Cichy et al. (2016) reported that for the different conditions in the dataset, they observed the earliest onset of significant neuronal activity at 77ms and the last peak point at 326ms. Hence, in all of our experiments, the input to the classifier was the 50–350ms (inclusive) windows of the trials directly or in the form of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ or $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ courses.

4.2 Baselines

SVM and MLP baselines: We trained a linear SVM (Noble, 2006) (which Cichy et al. (2016) also used) for each subject with a multi-class classification objective (different from the binary classifi-

Table 1: Summarized classification accuracies on the test sets of different subjects

Subject	SVM Baseline	MLP Baseline	DyNeMo RNN-Small + MLP	DyNeMo RNN-Large + MLP	DyNeMo Transformer + MLP	DyNeMoC RNN-Small	DyNeMoC RNN-Large	DyNeMoC Transformer
Mean (Std. Err.)	0.20 (0.04)	0.21 (0.05)	0.07 (0.02)	0.06 (0.02)	0.06 (0.01)	0.29 (0.07)	0.30 (0.07)	**0.40 (0.09)**

cation investigated in Cichy et al. (2016)) by directly feeding it the time window 50–350ms of the trials as input. Furthermore, we trained MLPs with 1024 hidden units, 2 layers, GELU activations (Hendrycks & Gimpel, 2016), and 0.5 dropout (Srivastava et al., 2014) on the same inputs.

Two-step baselines: For each hyperparameter configuration of each variant of DyNeMoC, we first trained its DyNeMo component in an unsupervised way and then used the flattened $\alpha_{63:137}$ vectors (corresponding to 50–350ms) to train the MLP components separately. This baseline model was meant to help us understand how useful the latent representations learned by DyNeMo are when it is trained with its original objective.

4.3 Results

We present the summary of test accuracies of the different models in Table 1 and the detailed subject-wise test accuracies in Table 4 of Appendix A.4. We first note that the two-step baseline models had very poor accuracies. This established that a completely unsupervised training of DyNeMo cannot lead to latent representations that are effective for downstream classification. This might also indicate that these representations might be incomplete for other tasks and healthcare applications.

Now, all the DyNeMoC models outperformed all baselines models across all subjects, except for Subject 3 (see Table 4) where all models performed poorly (which might indicate a data collection error or protocol issue for that individual). Moreover, the DyNeMoC-Transformer model achieved far superior test accuracies than the DyNeMoC-RNN-Large model which had a greater number of parameters. This is expected as the transformer variant processed trials as a whole rather than one time step at a time like the RNN one did and utilized the self-attention mechanism (Vaswani et al., 2017) for finding relationships between timesteps which the RNN one did not.

Overall, our results demonstrate that our proposed semi-supervised approach — DyNeMoC, in general, and DyNeMoC-Transformer, in particular – is a simple, robust, and very effective approach for learning useful latent representations from noisy data for downstream classification and potentially other healthcare applications.

5 Conclusion

In this work, we investigated an RNN-VAE model named DyNeMo which has been designed to model dynamic brain networks. Specifically, we evaluated the utility of the latent brain network description provided by DyNeMo in a downstream classification task. We found that the latent representations obtained from the unsupervised model alone were not sufficient to properly perform the task, which may also apply to other healthcare-related tasks of interest. We, therefore, proposed a semi-supervised architecture named DyNeMoC that jointly trained DyNeMo and an MLP classifier to optimize for both the variational free energy and cross-entropy. We showed this was crucial for improving the performance of the classification. We further demonstrated that the transformer variant of DyNeMoC outperformed the RNN one. Finally, we note that we focused on improving individual classification accuracies because, for healthcare applications, such as personalized treatment of neurodegenerative diseases like Alzheimer's and Parkinson's and the construction of customized brain-computer interfaces, we are interested in making individualized predictions. We believe that we can leverage information across individuals by training models with multiple subjects and fine-tuning. This could also potentially help improve the individual subject predictions. We leave this for future work.

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A Appendix

A.1 Prior Work

The usage of sliding windows used to be the predominant technique for studying neural dynamics. This technique (and other methods that build upon it) is, however, limited by the necessity of manually specifying the temporal window, i.e., the time scale at which the neural activities of interest take place (Hindriks et al., 2016). This manual specification usually needs to deal with the critical trade-off in two conflicting criteria: the time window being too long leads to missing fast dynamics and the time window being too short leads to insufficient data for making reliable network estimation.

An alternative approach that overcomes the shortcomings of sliding windows is the usage of generative models such as HMM-based models which can describe neural activity as a dynamic sequence of discrete brain states where each state is characterized by distinct network activity patterns. An HMM can be trained in an unsupervised way, and the learned state sequence of the HMM can be connected to task timings post-hoc to reveal task-induced neural dynamics (Vidaurre et al., 2016). However, HMM-based models are limited by the Markov assumption that the activation of states at a particular time point only depends on the activation of states at the previous time point. This disregards the rich dynamic courses that states undergo to arrive at a particular probabilistic configuration at a given moment of time.

As described in Gohil et al. (2022), DyNeMo was designed to overcome the shortcomings of HMM-based models.

A.2 Model Architectures and Training

Table 2: Architectures of DyNeMoC Models

	DyNeMoC RNN-Small	**DyNeMoC RNN-Large**	**DyNeMoC Transformer**
Encoder - Network Type	LSTM	LSTM	BERT
Encoder - Hidden Size	128	416	128
Encoder - Layers	1	2	1
Encoder - Attention Heads			1
Prior Network - Network Type	LSTM	LSTM	GPT2
Prior Network - Hidden Size	128	416	64
Prior Network - Layers	1	2	1
Prior Network - Attention Heads			1
MLP - Hidden Size	1024	1024	1024
MLP - Layers	2	2	2
MLP - Dropout	0.5	0.5	0.9
Total # of Parameters	2.1M	9.8M	9.2M

In all our experiments, we fixed the number of latent states to 20 and trained all the models three times for 200 epochs (of which the first 100 had $\tanh$ KL annealing (Fu et al., 2019)). Moreover, we used the Adam (Kingma & Ba, 2014) optimizer with a learning rate of 1e-3 and set the batch size to 64. The rest of the hyperparameters were the same as in Gohil et al. (2022).

A.3 Choosing the Value of Cross-entropy Coefficient

To select the appropriate value for the cross-entropy coefficient w_c, we trained DyNeMoC-RNN-Small on the 1st subject with w_c ranging between 1 to 10^6. As shown in Table 3, the validation accuracy became competitive from $w_c = 10^3$ onward and was the highest at $w_c = 10^4$. This made sense as the free energy term in the loss function of DyNeMoC was also in the order of 10^4.

Table 3: Classification accuracies of DyNeMoC-RNN-Small for different values of w_c on the validation set of the 1st subject

w_c	10^0	10^1	10^2	10^3	10^4	10^5	10^6
Accuracy	0.030	0.041	0.068	0.311	**0.379**	0.351	0.324

Hence, we set w_c to 10^4 in all of our experiments.

A.4 Additional Results

Table 4: Classification accuracies on the test sets of different subjects

Subject	SVM Baseline	MLP Baseline	DyNeMo RNN-Small + MLP	DyNeMo RNN-Large + MLP	DyNeMo Transformer + MLP	DyNeMoC RNN-Small	DyNeMoC RNN-Large	DyNeMoC Transformer
1	0.257	0.261	0.060	0.062	0.075	0.359	0.368	**0.520**
2	0.136	0.116	0.078	0.037	0.063	0.186	0.187	**0.273**
3	**0.066**	0.061	0.030	0.016	0.027	0.049	0.064	0.056
4	0.311	0.326	0.112	0.049	0.065	0.520	0.504	**0.668**
5	0.521	0.576	0.230	0.156	0.139	0.687	0.691	**0.820**
6	0.248	0.288	0.091	0.067	0.094	0.388	0.413	**0.568**
7	0.307	0.334	0.165	0.124	0.137	0.498	0.521	**0.668**
8	0.121	0.154	0.032	0.063	0.034	0.145	0.158	**0.192**
9	0.275	0.294	0.068	0.046	0.046	0.415	0.415	**0.559**
10	0.182	0.234	0.121	0.101	0.044	0.324	0.308	**0.438**
11	0.117	0.163	0.024	0.028	0.028	0.168	0.210	**0.274**
12	0.074	0.080	0.016	0.012	0.004	0.087	0.095	**0.117**
13	0.036	0.042	0.013	0.018	0.009	0.051	0.049	**0.057**
14	0.184	0.177	0.048	0.018	0.046	0.313	0.352	**0.458**
15	0.133	0.110	0.023	0.038	0.037	0.169	0.180	**0.256**
Mean (Std. Err.)	0.20 (0.04)	0.21 (0.05)	0.07 (0.02)	0.06 (0.02)	0.06 (0.01)	0.29 (0.07)	0.30 (0.07)	**0.40 (0.09)**